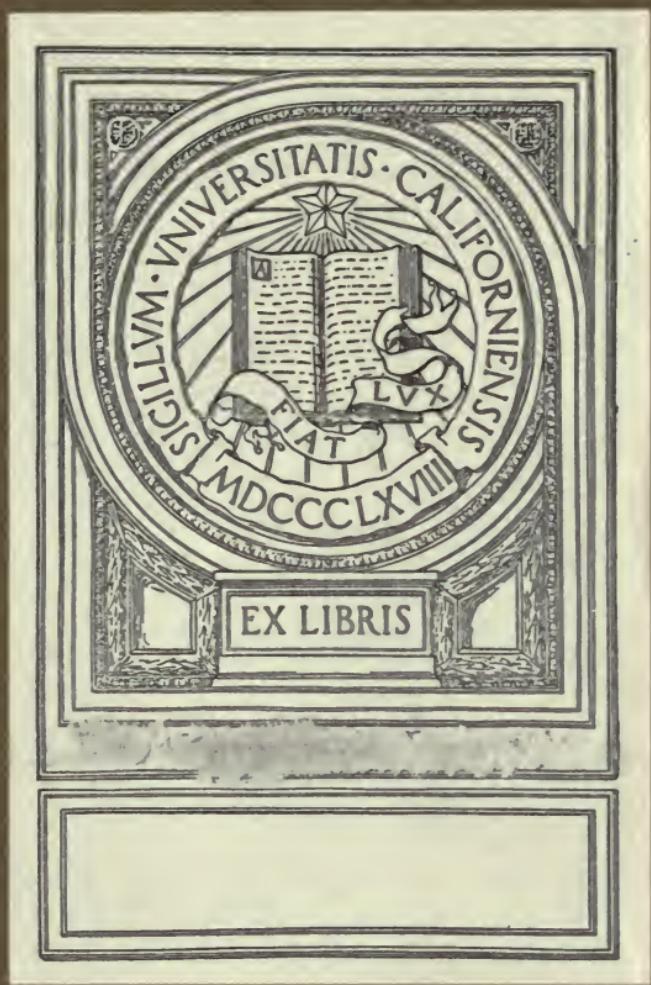


ORAL
COMPOSITION
CORNELIA GARRART WARD



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ORAL COMPOSITION

A TEXT BOOK FOR HIGH SCHOOLS

BY

CORNELIA CARHART WARD, A.M.

(SYRACUSE, RADCLIFFE)

HUNTER COLLEGE HIGH SCHOOL
NEW YORK CITY

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DRAMATIC ART DEPT

FOREWORD

FOR several years there has been much discussion of the defects in our high school teaching of English. The public and the colleges have inveighed against us, both for what we did, and for what we did not do. We, as teachers, though we knew that we could not expect mature thought from boys and girls, and though we knew that we could not perform the miracle of obtaining one hundred per cent achievement from youth of fifty or seventy-five per cent brain power, have not been satisfied with results. We have recognized the defects in our graduates, and we have seen justice in the demand for more practical instruction. Moreover, realizing that a live, broad-minded teacher is worth more than an overstrained, nervous, narrow one, we have sought relief from theme correction. At any rate, we have said, singly and collectively, "Oral composition will solve the whole problem!"

Granted. But how should we go about it? Strange to say, many were reluctant to try it. Those who did groped their way, often without a definite plan of procedure which should make the work of value. If oral composition is to be a vital part of our English courses in the future, we must cease to think of it as a haphazard experiment and must plan it just as carefully as we have planned the teaching of literature or writing.

The chief purpose of oral composition is to aid in preparing pupils to stand when occasion demands, and say naturally, fearlessly, and agreeably, as well as simply and clearly, whatever they have to say. Since everybody is

called on, at some time, to do this, it is high time that everybody be prepared to meet this demand as he meets other demands and duties in life. Nor will the ability to gather his thoughts and set them forth in orderly fashion fail to react on his everyday work and on his character.

This book is an attempt not only to help place oral composition where it belongs in the curriculum, but to reconcile the supposed differences, to bridge the supposed gap between oral and written expression. The pupils must be made to realize that talking, though often more effective than writing, is, on the one hand, just as easy, but, on the other hand, needs as much thought and preparation as writing. Most pupils write better than they speak. Should they not have a chance to equalize their effort?

It is expected that the teacher who uses this book will place the emphasis in composition on oral expression, and that as a result far less written work need be required. However, the basis of good composition, the planning, is provided for here. The manner of expressing thought in paragraphs, sentences, and words is fully treated. Furthermore, the sections on material and kinds of composition, and the topics, can all be used as assignments in connection with written work.

The material and arrangement of the book may need some justification and explanation. The full classification of kinds of discourse is used, in spite of its lack of originality, because these kinds are in constant use, because definite training prepares for public speaking better than does desultory, and because oral composition should follow much the same progression as does written. Terms in common use have been used to avoid confusion in the minds of pupils. Many extracts have been taken from contemporary speeches, not because of any permanent value they may

have, but because they are more in the straightforward, simple style of the present, and much more like what the pupils themselves may have occasion to use than are the classic models. The great orations of the past are always available for study. Ephemeral speeches are not.

It is to be hoped that the teacher will select according to the needs of his classes. Such sections as those on the reasons why we should know how to speak, the power of speech, and the history of the language are not intended for close study as material for examinations, but as reading to arouse interest. Needless to say the order of the assignments is not arbitrary. The topics are intended to be suggestive, since only the general scope could be presented here. The wide-awake teacher will make out new sets each term, as events suggest timely subjects. Current topics should be used whenever possible. The pupils will suggest good ones. Teachers of other branches may be glad to formulate topics that the pupils can use in correlation.

Methods in oral composition differ greatly. The writer feels that it should, if possible, be made spontaneous in large part. Pupils may easily be led to clear expression of opinion, or to animated informal debates in the class recitation on literature. Reports may be assigned to volunteers at first, then to each in turn, thus bringing before the class much additional information in an interesting form without increasing the home work of all. For this, the section on topics based on the college entrance reading is intended. Some teachers may prefer to take entire class periods. Interest is increased by allowing the pupils to choose topics from posted lists, not more than two taking the same.

It is sometimes advisable that the reports of two on the same topic should be compared. The pupils make keen criticisms, and become more interested at the same time

that they learn how to improve their own work. Sometimes a pupil critic may be appointed for the whole period and called on for a formal criticism at the close.

It may be found advisable to use some of the sections of the book only for reference, to fix in the minds of the pupils points of theory that have been worked out in class by skillful questioning by the teacher. Pupils find it difficult to remember such points without reading them in some formal arrangement.

Much benefit may be gained by reading plays in class, the pupils taking the parts. They enter into the spirit of the action, interpret the meaning of the text better, show more interest, and develop considerable skill in expression.

It will be found that the obstacles to oral composition disappear. The pupils soon find that they can address their fellows, and that such an assignment is not anything to be dreaded. In a period extending over several years the writer has known but one absolute failure among five or six hundred girls, from embarrassment in speaking before a class. Some who believed they could not collect their thoughts, when standing, for the most ordinary recitation, soon learned to talk extemporaneously in a natural, animated manner before several hundred girls in assembly. Programs have been made up of talks. Whole periods have been taken for original conversations between characters of some book. These often revealed careful study and clever interpretations. Informal debates have been much used as opportunity occurred in class, all having a chance to defend their views. Pupils have gained greatly in the power of expression of opinion on all sorts of questions. The kinds of work suggested in this book have been tested, and found productive of results.

On the whole, oral expression, plenty of it, as varied as

possible, enlivens the school work, adds interest to all parts of it, relieves the overburdened teacher, and attains the result most desired and worth most, that of giving the diffident pupil power most valuable all his life.

No attempt has been made in this book to evolve a method new or startling. Although many rules here given are to be found in other books in one form or other, they have been common property so long that no credit can be given. The exercises, though worked out independently by the author, may be very like some to be found elsewhere.

The author desires to thank Miss Mary Percival, of Hunter College, New York City, for reading and comment; Miss Mildred L. L. Taitt for suggestions as to some of the scientific topics; Miss Cornelia Trowbridge of the Richmond Hill High School, for a list of words often mispronounced; Miss Lulu McCormick, Job Hedges, John Mitchell, John Purroy Mitchel, Booker T. Washington, Fairfax Harrison, Miss Jane Addams, Miss M. Carey Thomas, Dr. Charles W. Eliot, Dr. Henry Van Dyke, Dr. Arthur T. Hadley, Dr. Guy Potter Benton, Dr. Talcott Williams, William J. Bryan, Colonel Roosevelt, William H. Taft, and President Wilson, who have so kindly given permission to use extracts from their addresses; and the following publishers for permission to use extracts from copyrighted books or pamphlets: Ferd P. Kaiser, The American Book Company, the Bobbs-Merrill Company, G. P. Putnam's Sons, The Houghton Mifflin Company, The New York *Sun*, *Times*, and *Tribune*, the National Child Labor Committee, and the American Association for International Conciliation.

C. C. W.

HUNTER COLLEGE, New York City, 1913.

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INTRODUCTION

WHY WE SHOULD KNOW HOW TO SPEAK

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ORAL COMPOSITION

CHAPTER I

WHY WE SHOULD KNOW HOW TO SPEAK

ALTHOUGH the proverb tells us that "there is nothing new under the sun," we find that many things connected with our daily life and work have changed a great deal since the times of our ancestors. This is true not only of the comforts and conveniences of life, but of studies as well. We have only to think of the long, hard study of the Chinese classics which those people who wished to hold trivial civic posts in China have been forced to make, or the ancient Jewish emphasis on the learning of the scriptures and the Talmud, or the Mohammedan study of the Koran, or the Spartan training of the body, or the Roman education for oratory and war, to see how differently in times past people have considered education. A century ago, the student preparing for college spent all his study hours over Latin, Greek, and mathematics. Today, many of our large high schools do not offer Greek, but give courses in science, and in commercial and even in technical branches.

In the study of modern languages there has been great advance in a few generations. In Addison's time it was impossible to obtain in an English university a useful knowledge of French. It was well on in the nineteenth cen-

tury that Harvard College introduced the study of modern languages. Strange to say, our mother tongue was the last to receive attention. To learn to write Latin verse was deemed more important than to express one's thoughts about practical affairs of everyday life in the best possible way.

Our grandparents tell us how they studied grammar and composition writing from the time when they learned to say the letters of the alphabet without knowing why, until the proud day of graduation. They sang such definitions as "A noun is the name of anything that can be known or mentioned," and made queer little boxes around words to show the relations between parts of speech. For state occasions, such as the Friday afternoon exhibitions, or the visit of the school trustee or selectman, they laboriously penned crude compositions on "Virtue," or "Happiness," or "Duty." Is it any wonder that "composition days" were dreaded, or that duty loomed up as a fearsome, unnatural thing?

Late in the last century, we who are now your teachers found "English" set down in the catalogues as of equal importance with Greek, Latin, mathematics and science. We thought it strange that a language we had always known should become so important all at once, but we prepared to pass Regents' and college entrance examinations by studying a few books very minutely and writing paragraphs on many subjects, and essays or themes on a few. We learned that there were methods of writing that had been found good, and that we must know how to express our thoughts on paper in an orderly way.

All this time, pupils everywhere recited, or "spoke pieces." Everybody knew "Curfew Shall Not Ring To-Night," or "Bingen on the Rhine." Elocution classes flourished, despite the dread some members of them often felt, and con-

tests in declamation were held all over the land. Happy and proud was the boy or girl who displayed a medal or a fine set of books won in such a way!

Now we are hearing much of a study that seems to many like a new bugbear, and the pupil gasps in dismay when he hears of "oral composition." Let us see what it really is that goes by a name much more alarming than the thing itself. It is only a bit of practice in telling somebody else what we have seen, or what happened to us yesterday or last week, or an amusing incident we witnessed; or perhaps we want to tell the other girls and boys how to make something or how to get ready for a camping or fishing trip; or we may want to convince them that we are right and they are wrong about something that is of vital interest to us all just at the time. Of course we can't do this unless we know how to express our ideas in an orderly way, and clearly enough to make them understood. Then, too, we need to be able to use our bodies to help our minds, so that our speech shall be interesting and effective. We are simply trying to put together the valuable things that have been learned by our predecessors about writing our own thoughts and repeating other people's thoughts, so that we shall have the full use of all our powers of expression. Surely this is something that we can enter upon with enthusiasm!

If you think for a moment of the various kinds of training the schools of different lands and ages have given, you will see that the aim was always to use what seemed the best means to prepare the pupil for his work in life—whether it was that of a warrior, of a preacher, a scholar, or a statesman. We hear much now of vocational training. The boy must learn in school how to use a saw or how to keep books for a business firm; the girl is taught to make

dresses or cakes, or to run a typewriter. Is there anything that we need to be able to do better than the thing we all do every day, all our lives, no matter what our occupation or place in the world?

IMPORTANT PLACE OF SPEECH IN OUR LIVES

There are several reasons why we find speech so important a part of our daily life. It is the most natural, simple way of self-expression after we have passed the babyhood period of sign-language. We feel that people are very unfortunate who are obliged to communicate with others by means of the fingers, or by writing. It is a great boon to the person born deaf that he can now learn to talk by the right use of certain muscles. Any other method is only a substitute for the use of the voice, an artificial means relied upon when the voice fails. Since, for our convenience, comfort, and highest usefulness, the voice must sometimes be elongated to reach people far away, or multiplied, to reach many who could not hear us at the same time, or preserved till another day or another year, we use written signs. But they are so unsatisfactory as substitutes that we have used every means to carry the vibrations of the vocal organs themselves. What should we do without the telephone? We gladly pay a few cents to talk to a friend in the same city, or to order our groceries. Sometimes we are willing to pay many dollars for the privilege of talking to someone a thousand miles away. It would cost but two cents to write to him, and there may be no hurry. But we want the human voice to carry the message. The phonograph has, by recording songs and speeches, given pleasure to thousands.

There are many occasions that demand the use of speech.

Our most ordinary needs are thus made known. If we want certain food we say what we want. If relief is needed we voice our necessities. If we see a child in front of a runaway horse we shout a warning. We express our feelings, whether of pain or grief or joy, by means of speech. Imagine writing our ordinary exclamations, or welcome to a friend! It is a commonplace that social intercourse is based on conversation. The man or woman who finds nothing to say, or is limited to the weather and like topics, is not a social success. The brilliant conversationalist is, on the other hand, a desirable addition to any gathering. In business relations, too, verbal expression makes possible easier, clearer understanding and greater rapidity. We explain to the tradesman exactly what we want. Business men carry on important deals largely through personal interviews, often traveling hundreds or thousands of miles for the purpose. Few business positions are filled without interviews in which the employer is able to test the personality and powers of the candidate through conversation. Indeed, in all the affairs of life, the deaf and the speechless, or those even diffident in talking, are at an incalculable disadvantage.

Who does not find it necessary to employ, at some time, his powers of oral expression? The clergyman, the teacher, and the lawyer are absolutely dependent, not only for success, but for a livelihood in their professions, on this power. The physician, though he may practice more than he preaches, must make his directions to the patient and the nurse so clear that there can be no mistake in following them. He may be called upon to lecture before medical students, or before a convention. He, as well as other professional men, is likely to serve on school boards or committees in organizations or for the general welfare. The engineer must often explain certain things clearly to the

men under him, or to his employers, else he risks the right execution and may imperil the lives of many. Although a business man may be brusque with his employees, he must at times be able to "talk a person into" a deal, or to emphasize his views at a directors' meeting. He must be ready to avert a strike among his men by an apt speech, or to smooth the ruffled feelings of an aggrieved customer, or to explain to his superintendent the best methods of management. If he has a partner he must often support by forceful reasons his wish to follow a specific policy. If he is employed by a large concern he may some day find himself under the necessity of defending an action that has injured the interests of the firm, or even of proving himself innocent of some charge brought by jealous or guilty associates. Many an honorable man has lost position or reputation through his inability to use the English language wisely and to his credit. Many a good man has lost the opportunity to say the word that would have saved another from despair or crime, because he did not know how.

The tremendous influence of the spoken word has been repeatedly shown. The founder of Christianity left no written sermons; but in simple words He told the common people the great truths of life and eternity, and they followed Him in multitudes. Wesley drew great crowds as often as he could speak, and melted men to tears and repentance. In our own day, many have heard Dwight L. Moody, a humble, unschooled man, win thousands. In courts of justice, too, lawyers skilled in rhetoric have turned hostile juries, and freed even proved criminals. Statesmen and politicians have carried assemblies with them; Cicero saved Rome by his speeches against Catiline; Patrick Henry, in a few impassioned words, roused the spirit of revolution in the Virginia House of Burgesses and through-

out the colonies; William J. Bryan won, by his "Cross of Gold" speech, not only a presidential nomination, but world prominence and fame. Quiet, self-possessed men, true to their duty, have quelled mobs by a few calm words—mobs that had perhaps been fired by the burning words of union leaders in mass meetings. We do not need to read the scene in which Antony turned the Romans against the conspirators to realize this. Life is full of instances.

But it is not only the great orator or the man inspired by the moment's need whose words are more influential if spoken. Our entire system of instruction, since Socrates walked and talked with all who would hear, has been based on the fact that speech is more potent than written signs. You all know that no book can take the place of the teacher in the classroom. In colleges, where the students surely know how to use books, the lecture system still prevails to such an extent that entire courses sometimes consist in lectures alone. Arrangement has been made by which students at Columbia or Harvard may listen to men from the Universities of Paris, Berlin, or Tokio, although their lectures often consist of material soon to be published. From kindergarten to university, instruction having the personal element through speech, is considered the most valuable. Outside the formal educational courses the same factor is sought. Throughout the country, lecture centers and Chautauquas have sprung up. In Boston, under the Lowell Institute, and in New York, under the Board of Education, hundreds of lectures are given for the public on government, art, literature, science, health, and other topics of popular interest.

Conventions, too, seem to increase in number and frequency. Every trade, profession, and organization, from a high school society to a great religious denomination, has

its gathering, attended by great numbers. People go to Boston, to Denver, Toronto, London, even to South Africa, not only to transact business, but to listen to great speeches made by noted men.

Often a special occasion or some specific purpose calls eminent speakers from great distances. Noted preachers, such as Lyman Abbott and Henry Van Dyke, are asked to address the student body at Harvard or Yale. Henry Arthur Jones crosses the ocean to lecture before universities on the drama. Perhaps some social movement is in progress, and the people of a city call in the leaders to present the cause. So Wendell Phillips went about speaking on abolition, and John B. Gough on temperance. Peace conferences and meetings have enlisted the services of Li Hung Chang as well as of Andrew Carnegie. Clubs engaged in the betterment of conditions have asked Judge Ben Lindsey to tell about the children's court, or Mr. Lunn to explain socialism, or John Mitchell to set forth the principles of labor unions. In connection with literary celebrations, the Dean of American literature might be called to Boston to help honor Longfellow, or William Watson invited across the Atlantic to read a poem at a Dickens Centenary in New York. Political meetings are held all over the land, and such men as Taft, Roosevelt, Wilson, and in earlier days Hill, Blaine, Douglas and Lincoln, have been heard in many cities and towns.

So great has been the desire to come face to face with the masters of speech that the people have made lecture tours exceedingly profitable from the days of Emerson and Beecher in the past, to those of Hillis and Bryan in the present. People want to hear, too, the recital of personal experiences, and have flocked to hear Stanley and Peary, "plain, blunt men."

WHY SPEECH HAS POWER

It has been well said that the pen is mightier than the sword, but the tongue of fire can penetrate beyond either. Multitudes have been swayed by a few minutes' speech. Policies of nations have been changed by the force of oratory. Great movements have been inaugurated by the impassioned fervor of a leader. What power resides in the gift of speech that can perform these miracles? Why are men still mightily moved by the most primitive form of human expression of thought?

There are various reasons for this. The audience is more easily reached through the sense of hearing. Everyone likes to hear people say things in public. Crowds will go to hear children recite silly "pieces" in a manner that is still worse than the matter. Plays, however poor, will draw people who could not be induced to read a drama. Then, too, there is an informality about speech that is pleasing. The personal element is prominent. Indeed, so strong is this feeling that members of a congregation often take offence because they think the preacher is "hitting" them, though the unfortunate man is probably generalizing. There is a feeling, sometimes, of sympathy between speaker and hearer, as in a conversation between congenial people. Often one may see the older members of a congregation nodding or shaking their heads, in response to something the speaker says. In the days of our grandfathers people shouted "amen" with great fervor when the preacher's words pleased them. It is human nature to be interested in the sound of a voice, and to respond to the personal touch.

The very nature of an audience—a body of hearers, not seers only, makes this interest possible. An audience is generally made up of people of various classes and of differ-

ent training and tastes. Many of them do not care for reading, or do not read easily, or find it difficult to concentrate the mind enough to "settle down" to a book of a serious nature. They are all accustomed, however, to speech, and find it natural to listen. They more readily comprehend, because of the interpretative aid of the various senses. Some people receive ideas most easily through the sense of hearing. Even those who grasp more readily the meaning of what they see are helped in understanding by the fact that they can see the person who is trying to communicate with them. Probably no hearing person in any audience is insensible to all the varieties of appeal through vocal expression. Oratory appeals not only to the senses, but to the intellect and to the deepest emotions.

This is because the speaker has at his command all the power he possesses, and every possible aid to use at will. The first is the power of personality. You would probably find it hard to define personality, because that quality is so intangible, so difficult to determine. Yet we all recognize something in each person that makes him what he is—different enough from every other so that we distinguish him, even after one or two meetings, from everyone else. Each person we meet impresses us in a new way. He has certain qualities that set him apart, that make us feel his own characteristics. If we have no definite impression of a person, either in looks or qualities, he is "colorless," lacking the elements that make up personality.

Sometimes the power of personality over an audience arises in part from some previous knowledge. We are all interested in hearing our personal friends or acquaintances talk in public. Not only do we feel a friendly sympathy with them, and thus come into closer mental touch with them, but we overlook defects, so that we are rarely re-

peled or left unmoved. Sometimes the same condition exists in respect to strangers, if we have previously heard of them because of their prominence or their opinions. A man who represents a great cause such as abolition, or temperance, or some notable religious or moral theory, or a bitterly fought political issue, is sure of making an impression. Those on his side are alert to note confirmation, or gain new inspiration. Those on the other will give their best attention in order to pick flaws. Even when the enthusiasm of a cause is lacking, the fame or notoriety of the speaker arouses interest and curiosity. A noted after-dinner speaker like Chauncey M. Depew makes a good impression whether or not he says much worth hearing. Many people take it for granted that he does. An impostor who has been discredited by most thoughtful, just persons is listened to with eagerness because people want to know what kind of man this is who can "lie like a gentleman" and set continents agog.

One of the personal qualities most influential in making people famous is also the most potent before an audience. Personal magnetism is an inherent quality. Some people have it from childhood. They are the ones who can lead armies to certain death, sway multitudes against all previous intentions, or inspire countless souls to high endeavor.

But magnetism sometimes arises in those not so gifted. It sometimes results, for an audience, from the manifest interest and feeling of the speaker. The inspector of ungraded classes in a large city school system recently found herself before an audience of representative men and women of culture and influence. She thought, "Here is an opportunity to present, where it may do good, the duty of the community to protect society from the defective human beings in our midst." This thought inspired her to such

a degree that, plain and matter-of-fact as she appeared in the beginning, she exerted a marvelous power over a body of people little accustomed to give way to enthusiasm. Before a like audience, in New York, a young Chinaman spoke, following a learned college professor, on the recent revolution in China. His interest, understanding, and vital desire to give an alien people the right view, fired him so that he exercised magnetic power, and electrified the people whom the good professor had nearly put to sleep. A few years ago, during the progress of a shirtwaist workers' strike, a meeting in the interests of the Consumers' League was held in Cooper Union before a mixed gathering. A simple working girl, small, insignificant in appearance, ill-dressed, told the story of how the strike started. Her unaffected air of truthfulness, her earnestness, her absolute belief in the cause she presented, furnished the power that held her hearers. As a common bit of metal may become magnetized, so a plain personality may become inspired by a great purpose.

Because the body is the temple of the soul it aids in the expression of the soul. The entire body aids in exerting the power of personality. The attitude itself affects the audience. Self-confidence, expressed by the bearing, prepossesses the hearers. Tension reveals interest and enthusiasm. Animation arouses the hearer from lethargy. Movements are sometimes more effective than a quiet poise. The temperament is often revealed by the use of the hands. We shall see later how expressive the hands may be.

The human eye is said to be the most powerful, compelling bodily organ, in gaining control over other beings. Professional hypnotists, who generally have sharp, dark eyes, obtain control over their subjects by gazing steadily at them. A person, by fixing his gaze on another, can within

a few seconds force the latter to look at him involuntarily. He can, by the same means, force a guilty person to lower his eyes or to show unmistakable signs of confession, or one ill at ease to break down completely.

Someone has called the eyes the windows of the soul. Certainly through them character and disposition are revealed. Mildness, obstinacy, or fierceness is shown at a glance. Feelings are shown so quickly and so involuntarily that they cannot be hidden. Mirth, pleasure, sadness, fear, anger, are all expressed by the eyes. Love and hate shine from them. The physical and mental states, too, are shown. The dull eye may indicate illness or stupidity. The brilliant one denotes clear intellect, keen wit, and quick mental processes. A fixed or wild one may be the sign of insanity. On the whole, no other organ is so expressive as the eye.

Since the voice is the medium by which the thoughts of the speaker reach the brain of the hearer, it is most important as a means of communication. The mere sound of the voice forces attention. Everyone will start at a sudden cry or even an unexpected remark in a silent room. Many persons cannot do mental work in a room where others are talking, because the sound of the voice compels attention. In nature the voice is flexible and vibrant, possessing wide range and a sympathetic quality. When pleasing in sound, as a well-trained voice used in natural tones always is, it attracts, soothes, or arouses. A speaker with a good voice can command his hearers from start to finish.

Through the exercise of his own personality, then, the speaker can produce effects. He has the inspiration of his belief, his feelings, his mood, and the aid of a flexible instrument, the human body, to use at will. Before him is the material on which to work, in the form of other human beings with responsive personalities, waiting for the impression.

We sometimes hear people say that oratory is a lost art. It is certainly true that we do not hear of great speeches in Congress so frequently as did our grandfathers, but notable and influential speeches are still made, sometimes even in Congress, and more often at large dinners in celebration of some anniversary, or at great conventions. Undoubtedly the wide prevalence of newspapers and magazines as vehicles for communicating information has decreased the tendency to devote energy to the making of long speeches, which can be heard by but a few. On the whole, however, it is probable that more people study and practice public speaking now than ever before.

Conversation, as well as the art of letter-writing, seems on the wane. Have you ever noticed the inanity of our talk, not only that of schoolgirls but also that of able men and women? Most people apparently find it impossible to begin a conversation without a remark about the weather. Each seems interested only in circumstances concerning himself. If a speaker or a play or an art exhibition is mentioned it is only to say, "Have you seen *The Man of the Hour?*" or "Did you go to hear Mrs. Pankhurst?" "Oh, you missed it. It was fine." There is seldom any discussion of the merits or demerits of the play or address, or of its significance from an artistic or sociologic point of view.

Is it any wonder that people who find themselves so poor in expression do not trust themselves to talk to an audience, but "read papers"? Not only embarrassed students, and club women anxious to set forth some newly acquired knowledge, resort to the use of the type-written page, but speakers invited for special occasions however informal, men asked to address conventions, and even clergymen, have fallen under the spell. Think of a man, prominent in the life of a great city, reading in a halting manner a paper

to the graduates of a college, of which he is a trustee, or a professor of elocution reading a paper on oral expression, or a lecturer who has used the same material a hundred times, confining himself closely to the sheets before him!

WHY SPEAKING IS PREFERABLE TO READING

The question may be asked, why not read? We are then sure of presenting our thoughts fully and in an orderly manner. There is such an advantage. But we can train ourselves to do this without reading. In reading what we have to say we neglect many aids to effective presentation. In the first place, we often lose the interest of the audience. A prominent schoolman recently made the after-dinner address at a convention banquet of teachers. As he read his carefully prepared paper the guests yawned and tried in vain to follow his thoughts. Many people do not like to hear others read. There are instances in which ministers who read their sermons have been turned away for those of less merit and ability who did not. Members of clubs tire of the constant succession of papers, and eagerly welcome someone who "just gets up and talks." One who makes it a rule never to "read a paper" anywhere is often rewarded by having the long-suffering auditors say, "It was so much more interesting because you *talked*."

Another reason for the failure to arouse interest is that in reading in the ordinary way much of the possible effect is lost by the close attention to the page. This gives an impression of unfamiliarity with the subject. Whatever personal enthusiasm the author has, fails to reach the audience. His magnetic power is held in check as if it were a dangerous, instead of a most valuable ally. The eye, so potent with an audience, is kept directed toward the page,

so that it not only is prevented from exercising its natural control, but actually, by the lowered lids, decreases the effect of the speaker's personality. The voice is likely to become unnatural and monotonous. The person who reads as he talks is very rare. There is a tendency to change completely both voice and manner. The bearing of the body is less natural and impressive, and the gestures are either omitted or greatly hampered. Dr. J. M. Buckley tells of a meeting in London, in memory of President Garfield, at which two Americans spoke. James Russell Lowell read a polished speech, which left the audience unmoved. But Bishop Simpson, in a speech apparently extemporary, produced a marvelous effect. The content of his speech was no more valuable. The reason for his success was that he was able to use his powers to the utmost.

Dependence on a few sheets of paper sometimes causes embarrassing situations. A woman reading a paper on the laboratory method in English found that, through misplacing the sheets, she had left out the most important part. A lecturer once dropped his manuscript to the floor as he stepped forward on the platform, and the audience had to wait while the agonized, perspiring victim rearranged the sheets. A well-known clergyman, advanced in years, appeared before the flock of which he was still nominally the pastor, to read a sermon. The pages were confused. After vainly thumbing them to restore order, he turned to his assistant, virtually his successor, for aid. Even after the pages had been arranged, he repeated a considerable portion. Another preacher went as an exchange to a pulpit of a denomination which practiced infant baptism. In the midst of the sermon, before he saw what was coming, he thundered out a denunciation of the church's belief. He stopped, and assured the congregation that he had not re-

membered that passage in the sermon when he selected it. One often needs to change the current of the discourse, or at least to modify the expression, for no one can be absolutely sure of the nature of an audience he has not seen.

Why should we neglect, as so many of us do, the cultivation of so useful and necessary a form of expression as speech? We have seen that it is the most natural and the easiest form. It is always in demand, by rich and poor, learned and ignorant, and is always available. It is the most effective and the most influential. Moreover, there are great rewards for its skillful use, not only in personal satisfaction in the mastery of a fine tool, but in appreciation and increased power, whatever one's work or station.

But some will say, "I can't." There should be no such word as can't in the student's vocabulary. What has been done can be done again. You have all heard how Demosthenes put pebbles in his mouth so that he might overcome a defect in speech. Your chief defect is that you say "I can't, I know I can't. I never have." Don't be alarmed if you do quake a little. Some experienced preachers tremble, but they go ahead and win fame and honor. A few years ago there was in one school a girl who had always been unable to express herself when on her feet. She became confused in her thought. After she had had some practice in classifying and arranging material, and had talked before her own class on some subjects in connection with the work, she consented to talk for two or three minutes before the whole school of five or six hundred during the morning exercises. She was brilliantly successful, and realized that she had formerly been held down by the idea that she could not think before an audience. Many people hesitate for years to rise in a public meeting of any kind to say a few

words, and envy those who can. A woman of middle age never said a word under such circumstances until, during a revival, she was aroused out of self-consciousness. She has spoken in weekly prayer meetings regularly ever since. A young man steadily refused for several years to conduct a small meeting in a young people's organization. Finally he yielded to persuasion and the assertion that he could if he thought so. He proved an exceptionally good leader for that kind of meeting, and has led many times since. It is the will to do that counts.

PART I

THE CONDITIONS OF GOOD SPEAKING

PROPERTY OF DEPARTMENT OF DRAMATIC ART

CHAPTER II

PREPARATION

ALTHOUGH Topsy said that she just "growed," the same statement could be made of few things. Each product is the result of the working of a combination of forces or acts, some unseen, but none the less important as factors. This is especially true of the arts. Take, for example, the making of a fine piece of china. The maker must have, in the first place, an aim, so that he will know whether he is to produce a pitcher or a tea-cup, or an ornament of delicate design.

Then he must have suitable material, of the right kind and in sufficient quantity. He must decide just what form the finished piece is to have, so that he will know how to shape it harmoniously. The place in which he works must be adapted to his needs, as to light and space. He needs a board and a few tools, but most of all he should know how to use what nature has given him. His hands have been trained for their work, so that a swift, sure movement as the lathe turns works wonders. Above all, his mind must control and direct his movements. The greatest care is to be taken, not only in the forming, but in the finishing.

So it is with the art of speaking. The success and the value of the effort are wholly dependent on the conditions attending the individual product. The greatest and best do not scorn preparation, but count it as the major part. Those

of us who are just learning how to speak well may, then, profit greatly by it.

We need to know, at the outset, what we are aiming to accomplish. Are we called upon to amuse for a few moments, to give information about some subject that is not clear to the rest of the class or the family, to explain in detail a difficult process, to express our opinions for the guidance of others, or to convince others that we are right in wishing to follow a certain line of action?

The circumstances of the talk may have much to do with the purpose of it. You may be asked to introduce a speaker at some meeting in school. Of course you will not have the burden of presenting the main subject of the evening, nor will you plan to take up most of the time. The mayor of a city was recently called on to welcome an assembly of men who had come to his city to discuss the social uplift through religion. He took forty minutes to advocate socialism as a political force, and to attack the principles for which his hearers stood. The nature of the audience may be such that you must consider it as well as the occasion in deciding what your aim shall be. Must you soothe, or arouse and inspire? Must you amuse or teach?

CHOICE OF SUBJECT

A very important step in the preparation is the determining of the subject. On the selection of a suitable one may depend everything. It must be considered in relation to the occasion, the audience, and the speaker himself.

There are some times when, from the very nature of the case, the subject is the result of the previous talk, among a few congenial people, or at a business meeting. But on some occasions a man or woman may be asked to speak

without any specific limitation. One of these is the **commemoration**. Often the anniversary of the birth or death of some noted person is celebrated. A pupil may be called on to give a short talk in a school society, or in exercises held on a national anniversary, or the centenary of some writer or scientist. Most large organizations observe such memorial days. Anyone in the town who can talk is likely to be called on to speak. Events, too, are commemorated. The anniversary of the discovery of a land, a process, or a substance, or the winning of a battle, or the beginning of statehood, may be observed by assemblages large and small. Lincoln delivered his famous Gettysburg address on such an occasion. Webster is remembered as an orator from such addresses as that at Bunker Hill. The founding of a college or the dedication of a church is of sufficient importance to call for a celebration. There is no educated person, whatever his occupation, but is likely to be called on for a talk on some such occasion.

The choice of a subject for a commemoration is especially difficult, because there seems to be no new material. However, some have solved the difficulty by showing some little-known or understood relation between the man or event and the times. Others have drawn parallels or contrasts. Many have applied to present conditions some principle advocated by the man or involved in the event. Thus the anniversary observance has been made a means of inspiration.

One of the most important purposes for which people come together is concerned, not with the past, but with the present. Various organizations carry on their work partly through **meetings and conventions**. Part of the program is of a business nature. Officers must be chosen, reports received, policies outlined. Perhaps some of the reports

must be written; but the copy is always filed and often printed for distribution. How glad everyone would be if all who make reports would, instead of droning out statistics, give live, interesting talks, emphasizing important features of the work. In deciding policies, there should be a few prepared speeches by those who have studied the phases of the work, and all competent should take part in the open discussion. Here whoever opens or joins in the discussion must decide what subject and what phase of it to take up. A wrong speech may endanger the success of a movement planned for many years, or it may launch a new one. In connection with such meetings, sessions are often held at which outsiders speak on more general subjects. These persons would not, probably, talk on manufacturing to ministers, or on physics to librarians, but are they always alive to the possibility of broadening the field of vision, of arousing intelligent bodies of people to new endeavors, to the highest use of their collective influence? Here, then, a comparative freedom in choice of subject should be well used.

Meetings are often held, not to honor the past or arrange for the present, but to sway sentiment for the future. Political mass-meetings have been a feature of our entire national history. The women working for suffrage or equal pay, the laboring people struggling for better conditions, the social workers arousing the world to a conception of the need and the possibilities of concerted effort, all use this method of appeal. The girl striker, the officers of the woman's club, the editor, the teacher, the business man, all are called to the platform with the man who earns his living by public speaking. And sometimes the humble laborer makes the greatest impression, because he speaks of the things nearest him.

But the most frequent calls come on the unimportant, unforeseen occasions, or the purely **social** ones. And these are the hardest to answer. The school-boy or girl, or an older person, is elected to a small office in an organization, and is called on to make a speech. How inane many such responses are! The good woman in the church feels that she ought to take part in the devotional meetings, but often fails to say anything new or helpful, based on her own experience. The visitor to a school or Sunday-school he formerly attended is sure to be asked to face an expectant audience. He has five minutes, in which he may leave an impression of incompetency or in which he may utter stirring words that leave an influence on the life of a pupil. If a well-known speaker comes to the town, somebody must introduce him. Installations of all kinds make it necessary for the people asked to "grace the occasion by a few words" to try to avoid saying "the usual thing." Every organization, no matter how small or unimportant, has luncheons or dinners, at which the officers are expected to speak. Anybody who has attracted public attention is besieged with requests to give an address at some banquet. He is expected to keep the audience flattered and amused, and to say something that will look well in the paper. It will not do to say the same things, and crack the same jokes, at more than twenty such dinners in one winter. The speaker who can fulfil all the requirements, and can say something of real benefit to his hearers, deserves the palm.

Often the occasion determines the **nature of the audience**, but not always. All classes of people attend some public meetings. The subject must, first, be interesting to the people likely to gather. Is their general interest of a social, business, or religious nature? Are they serious-minded or

the opposite? Are they cultured or ignorant? All these possibilities must be considered. Yet they cannot govern the choice absolutely. Edward Howard Griggs delivered to an audience in Cooper Union, made up of the people of the lower East Side, of men with grimy hands and sales-girls weary with the long day, a lecture on Carlyle that included a survey of German philosophy. The hall was crowded with eager people. In the same place was delivered a lecture on the Idea of Impersonal Immortality. It was what the people wanted.

The subject should **not be too familiar** to the members of the audience. Outside of the conventions of a professional nature, the physician does not want to hear about medicine. The business man likes to get away from the routine of his daily life. None of us cares to hear a thing already too well known by personal experience or through the public press. Inside information about something little understood, the presentation of a new and inspiring idea, the story of something alive with the human element, we all want to hear.

Yet the subject should be one that **the hearers are likely to understand**. A child has a limited power of comprehending what the man before him is talking about. An unlettered person is not likely to understand any talk that can be given on Professor James' Pragmatic Theory, though he may be entirely capable of following a good explanation of the principles of the Republican party. Some technical knowledge might be necessary to enable one to grasp the theory of electricity last propounded.

The speaker may not always see his hearers beforehand, but he at least knows **his own fitness** fairly well. He is not likely to interest a body of strange people in something he cares nothing about. Nor can he make clear

something that he does not understand or only half knows. If he is unable to find material to supply his lack, he had better take another topic. Then, too, he must consider whether he is capable of treating the subject adequately. A school-boy may find it necessary to avoid a topic that a professional man or an experienced speaker could treat with ease.

After the general subject is selected, it must be narrowed. A man who is planning to write a series of books may take a broad subject. For a single volume he must select some phase of it. Should he be asked to contribute a magazine article, he must narrow his treatment still more. A paragraph in a daily paper calls for the discussion of some one point. So, too, a speaker has to decide on his topic. Should he deliver a course of lectures during a college year, he might give a general survey of the literature of a nation. If asked to speak six times, he might confine his remarks to the poetry of one century. An evening hour could be spent in the discussion of the work of a single poet. A five-minute talk before a school might point the lesson of Burns's failure in life. A student could show the class, in less time, the lack of "a single aim" on the part of Burns.

The title sometimes needs as much attention as the subject itself. Sensationalism never pays, but a bright, catchy title often arouses interest. "The American Infamy" awakes curiosity. "Farthest North" and "Swinging Round the Circle" are unusual and suggestive. The title should, if explanatory, clearly limit the subject. "The Work of Morris for the Colonial Government" cannot be a sketch of Morris's life. "The Mission of New Japan" is not a history of the country. "A Picture I Like" cannot be an account of all the treasures in the museum. If you

tell an anecdote, you do not want to "give away" the point by the title. Both interest and clearness, then, may depend on the few words that indicate the train of your thought.

Exercise I.

Criticize the following subjects, indicating reasons:

Cheerfulness.	Radio-activity.
Lincoln as a story-teller.	The ladies.
Suffrage.	The discovery of America.
Infant baptism.	Vacation schools.
Indians.	A pioneer.

Exercise II.

Bring to class five subjects that you think people in your town might have reason to use in speaking in public.

State the probable occasion on which each would be suitable.

Give the time each should occupy.

Exercise III.

Narrow or limit the following general subjects, stating probable occasion and time for discussion of various phases:

Woman suffrage.	The tariff.
The government of the United States.	Tuberculosis.
Commerce.	War.
Education.	James Russell Lowell.
Travel.	Abraham Lincoln.
Libraries.	The Anti-Saloon League.
City or country life.	Harvard University.
Newspapers.	Congestion in cities.
Printing.	Village improvement.
	Porto Rico.

Exercise IV.

Bring to class four subjects, suitable for talks of not more than five minutes, on which you would like someone to speak before the class or school.

GATHERING MATERIAL

The chief requirement for a speaker, whatever his subject, is that he shall have something worth while to say about it. He who has that is not greatly troubled by the people looking at him, but is concerned with giving them that which he has to give. A person telling of his marvelous escape does not lack for words, nor does a voluble woman expressing her indignation over being cheated at the dry-goods store. The convert in a city mission has a story to tell of a life made useful, that is of greater value than the precepts of many a clergyman.

But we do not all have thrilling experiences to tell. We may need to prepare ourselves. Webster once said, "No man not inspired can make a good speech without preparation." He said with regard to his reply to Hayne that, although he did not take notes and study on it, he was thoroughly conversant with the subject of debate, from having made preparation on it for a totally different purpose than making that speech. Emerson summed up in two sentences his own habit of preparation. "The chief thing I aim at is to master my subject. Then I earnestly try to get the audience to think as I do."

The second step in the preparation for a public talk is the **gathering of material**. This may be done from various sources. The most obvious is **experience**. If you have never made a cake, or a dress, or a chair, it would not be advisable for you to try to tell other people how to do

so. Mr. Cook's narrative of a journey to the pole has no value except as a curiosity. That of Commander Peary is vivid with his own part in it. The survivors of the Triangle Company fire and those of the Titanic's disaster can tell as no one else can the horrors of those events.

The same people can also give information as to the management of affairs at the time, based on what they saw. They know from **observation** how people acted, what was done to prevent panic, what means of safety were lacking. So a traveler learns, as he goes about, the manners and customs of the people, though he does not necessarily live in an Indian hut or take part in a war-dance. A broader knowledge is, of course, gained by what we see; a more intensive by what we do and feel.

Sometimes we profit by the **lives or observation of others** who have been in different situations or seen more varied sights. They tell us how affairs are managed in some school society, or how trains are run, or how some difficulty has been overcome. Most of us know people in different stations in life, of varied occupations, and of a broad range of knowledge. They are often willing to tell us what we need to know about some one phase of the subject.

Although students are all able to read, it sometimes appears that they do not take advantage of the wealth of **information in print**. The reliable newspapers usually have valuable material, in abundance, on current topics. The magazine sections of some newspapers have timely articles on many subjects. The weekly and monthly magazines are rich with a varied store. I wonder how many of you know that every good library contains, not only a monthly guide to the articles in the periodicals, but one or two cumulative indexes, such as Poole's, which list ar-

ticles by subjects, for several years. The use of these saves much time and reveals the hiding place of material you are seeking. Of course you all go to the library frequently to consult books. But can you always find the ones you want? There may not be a librarian at leisure to help you. Books are arranged on the shelves by subjects. Learn how to use the card catalog, both for authors and subjects. Books covering a variety of subjects are listed on several cards. If you find a book on the general subject, be sure you find out whether it has anything on the special phase you are looking up. Most volumes are indexed; but teachers have often given pupils books for use on special subjects, only to have the girls and boys come back, saying, "I can't find anything about witchcraft here." "This book hasn't anything in it about what you told me to look up." Yet it was there, to be found in a moment by one who searched intelligently. Is it not worth while for a student to learn how to use his tools? Can you not cultivate, as so many have done, the power of finding out what is in a book, without reading it page by page?

The matter of **note-taking** is important. It is usually wise to think out the general divisions you are likely to treat, so as to know what to look for. If you keep the notes likely to fall under the various phases of the subject on separate cards or papers, there will be less time lost in arranging. For large subjects, undoubtedly the best way is to have each note on a separate sheet. Small penny pads are very useful for this purpose. Each sheet should be headed, for quick classification, with the abbreviation standing for the division. Then the separate sheets may be easily arranged, and shifted until the desired order is obtained.

For a short talk, a simple scheme may be adopted. Take a large sheet of paper. Note, as they occur to you, the points you want to include. Take, for example, the ways in which birds are protected. You will have something like this:-

X Claws.	High nests.
— Flight.	— Color.
/ Game laws.	/ Audubon Society.
/ Laws against killing birds for adornment.	X Beaks. — Feathers.

After writing down these points, you go over them and check the ones having some connection by a mark.

Those marked — have to do with escape from harm. The items marked X show means of attack in defense. Those with the sign / refer to protection provided by man. The first two sets will come under protection afforded by nature as compared with that afforded by man. One point is left unmarked. Does that, with other material, form a division, conditions of life, or does it, as the result of instinct, belong under the provisions of nature for avoidance of danger?

Often, you will have so much material, after note-taking, that it cannot all be used. It will be necessary to select the material most pertinent, or to limit the subject more narrowly. Sometimes the general divisions you had in mind at the start will be considerably changed. Some may be omitted, others added; the expression of all may be changed.

OUTLINING

The power of classification involved in arranging scattered material to form a clear, logical outline is one most

valuable to a student. It aids in the development of clear thinking and orderly habits of mind. It trains the judgment in comparing and selecting. Moreover, the outlining of what one is to say makes possible good expression. Confusion gives way to clearness. A subject difficult to follow becomes easy to understand. Wandering, unconnected ideas are gathered into a unified whole. The subject is treated fully instead of inadequately. On the whole, he who has mastered the methods of outlining has little to fear concerning the effective presentation of his subject-matter.

There are three important **bases of classification** for the main points of any subject. These are *time*, or the chronological order, *comparison*, often resulting in contrast, and the *association of ideas*.

In using the *time* basis we consider the facts in the order of their happening, as in a narrative, or in the periods of time in which they were of value. The historian of America may divide his work into the periods of discovery and exploration, colonization, revolution, national growth, sectional dispute and war, consolidation and expansion; he has taken the chronological order as surely as though he had divided it into sixteenth, seventeenth, eighteenth, and nineteenth centuries, as we often treat literature. In telling how to make a cake, the time basis is likely to be used. We may give the advantages of athletics to a boy during his school days and in after life.

If the historian prefers to use *comparison*, he may contrast Virginia and Massachusetts in colonial times. The Revolutionary War may be compared with the French Revolution. We may consider the question of the influence of athletics as compared to that of school societies.

The basis of *association of ideas* is often hardest to un-

derstand, but it is by far the most generally used. When we think of one phase of a subject we naturally think of one or two more. The most common classification, much overworked, is the physical, mental, and moral. The practical suggests the theoretical. The historian may decide to work out the political, religious, social, educational, and industrial development of a nation. The Board of Education may find it necessary to discuss the effect of athletics on the school and on the individual pupil, or the effect on the boy's health, his school work, and his character.

Both the subject and the material must be carefully considered in deciding what basis of classification to use. Many subjects can be treated by any one of the three. It is best to make trial **main headings**, and test them by the following requirements. These headings must be coördinate. That is, (1) they must have the same relation to the general subject, in order to preserve unity. (2) They must be approximately equal in rank, as officers of the same rank having the same relation to their chief. (3) They must be mutually exclusive, so that they do not encroach on the territory of others. (4) Taken together, they must cover the ground, as patrols do their beats. This is something that most young writers fail to think about, having an idea they have done well if half or two-thirds of the field is covered. The expression of these points must be clear, usually in sentence form.

Exercise V.

Write main headings for as many of the following as the instructor directs, trying different bases until you find the best.

If you have more than four main headings, revise by

grouping until you have a set that will bear criticism according to the directions above.

1. The life of the farmer.
2. The characteristics of the Chinaman.
3. The making of a photograph.
4. How Lincoln became president.
5. A modern newspaper.
6. Our trip to West Point.
7. Our new city hall.
8. The tramp I saw yesterday.
9. Why this town should have a new railway station.
10. The century 1805-1905 in transportation.
11. The causes of the Civil War.
12. The trials of the immigrant.
13. The metamorphosis of the butterfly.
14. The benefits of libraries.
15. The city board of health.
16. The choice of a president.
17. The harvesting of the wheat crop.
18. A polar expedition.
19. Public and private schools.
20. My first day at school.
21. The game of baseball between —— and our school.

Exercise VI.

Select three subjects that you think could be treated by main headings based on time.

Select three subjects that could be treated by main headings based on comparison.

Select three subjects that could be developed by association of ideas.

Exercise VII.

Criticize the sets of main headings on the following page. Which set is best for each subject? Why best? Try to write better sets for the same subjects.

INDIAN LIFE.

- a.
 - I. The life of the primitive Indians.
 - II. The life of the Indians of to-day.
- b.
 - I. Outdoor life.
 - II. Indoor life.
- c.
 - I. Necessities.
 - II. Manner of spending time.
 - III. Relations with others.
- d.
 - I. Babyhood.
 - II. Childhood.
 - III. On the war trail.
 - IV. Later life.
- e.
 - I. It was very easy.
 - II. It was considered cruel.

USES OF THE TELEPHONE.

- a.
 - I. Social.
 - II. Business.
- b.
 - I. It is useful to the business man.
 - II. The professional man cannot get along without it.
 - III. The housewife finds it a convenience.
- c.
 - I. People use it in carrying on business.
 - II. They often have occasion to use it socially.
 - III. They find it valuable in emergency.
- d.
 - I. We use the telephone in the morning.
 - II. We find it convenient in the afternoon.
 - III. At night it may be of great service.

e.

- I. Before the telephone was invented, people had much inconvenience in communicating with each other.
- II. Now, almost everyone finds the telephone a great boon.

After the main headings have been tested, we must fill in the **sub-headings**. These must, for each division, conform to the same requirements as the main headings, but need not be on the same basis. For instance, if the basis *time* is used for the main headings, that of the *association of ideas* may prove necessary for the sub-headings. The historian who takes each century in order may trace the development of the various institutions, government, religion, etc., in each hundred years. The most frequent mistakes in the use of the sub-headings are the following. Inversion may be the result of failure to coördinate properly, so that a main head is where a sub-head ought to be, and a point really subordinate is taking the proud position of its superior. Sometimes a sub-point gets lost, and is found under another command, where it is very much out of place, and likely to be misunderstood. Another fault that is confusing is a lack of harmony and uniformity in expression. If sentences, phrases, and words are all used to denote topics of the same rank, it is difficult to see the right relations.

Sub-headings may be carried down as far as there is material. There should always be at least two of the same rank under each heading except in the case of an example, since there can be no division without at least two parts evident.

Much depends on the **arrangement**, the order of treatment of both main and sub-headings. Several things must be considered. Which will arouse most interest at the

beginning? Which will leave the best impression as the last? Which will make the best climax? How can the points be arranged so that the speaker or writer can pass most easily and naturally from one to another? The decision must depend on what order will answer most needs.

SPECIMEN OUTLINES

THE LAWRENCE STRIKE.

There are few who have not been interested in the accounts, in so many newspapers, of the Lawrence strike.

- I. The good intentions of the legislature of Massachusetts led to the great strike in February.
 - A. The state legislature reducing the number of working hours for mill workers from 56 to 54 hours a week.
 - B. The wool and cotton mill owners reducing wages accordingly.
- II. Great excitement was shown by all parties.
 - A. 400 workers under Ettor stopping work at first.
 1. Rioting in streets.
 2. Marching in parades.
 3. Attempting to stop all work.
 - B. Governor sending militia to keep order.
 1. Exciting the strikers all the more.
 2. Causing even greater trouble for a while.
- III. The result was favorable for the strikers.
 - A. Head of Arlington Mills announcing raise of 5 per cent.
 - B. Strikers regaining former positions.
 - C. Investigation of homes of workers made.
 1. Showing bad conditions
 - a. Unhealthful houses.
 - b. Exorbitant rents charged by company
 2. Resulting in efforts to better conditions.

Pupil's outline.

WHY I ENJOYED THE "SKETCH-BOOK."

Introduction

- I. I had the idea that I should not like the "Sketch-Book."
 - A. Preferring to read stories.
 - B. Thinking that all essays were "dry."
- II. The book proved really interesting.
 - A. Humor.
 - B. Characterization.
- III. I felt well rewarded for reading the book.

Body:

- I. In these essays we learn a great deal of Irving the man.
 - A. Personality.
 1. Dreamy.
 - a. Fond of calling up old stories.
 - b. Fond of meditation.
 2. Sentimental.
 - a. Showing interest in the village beauty's troubles.
 - b. Fond of old associations.
 3. Sensitive.
 - a. To feelings of others.
 - b. To external impressions.
 4. Tender.
 5. Grave, yet playful, by turns.
 - B. Tastes.
 1. Love for travel.
 2. Love of literature.
 3. Interest in history.
 - II. The studies, both of nature and human nature, which Irving gives us would alone be sufficient reward for reading the book.
 - A. Nature.
 1. Charming woodland scenes.
 2. Rural estates.
 3. Ocean scenes.

B. Human nature.

1. Gentle innocence of childhood.
2. Charming grace of girlhood.
3. Loveliness of womanhood.
 ex. Wife of Leslie.
4. Dignity of manhood.
 ex. Roscoe.
5. Blessedness of parenthood.
6. Peace of age.
 ex. The Squire.

III. The life and customs of England, our mother country, as Irving shows them to us, form the greatest interest in the book.

A. Customs.

1. Of Irving's time.
 - a. Rural.
 - (1) Funerals.
 - (2) Church customs.
 - b. Urban.
2. Of past days.
 - a. Celebration of Christmas.
 - b. Allusions to historical events.

B. English life.

1. Rural.
 - a. Among wealthy.
 - b. Among poor.
2. Urban.
 - a. Among aristocrats.
 - b. Among middle class.

Conclusion:

I. Irving deserves a high place among writers.

A. Style.

1. Vivid.
2. Smooth.
3. Simple.
4. Pathetic.

B. Subjects.

1. Interesting.
2. Varied.

C. Manner of treatment.

1. Natural.
2. Sympathetic.

II. My interest in the "Sketch-Book" has made me want to read other books by him.

Pupil's outline.

See also page 243.

Note carefully the plans of talks given on pages 364-402, making formal outlines as directed by the instructor.

THE INTRODUCTION

When one is talking, he must, of course, introduce the subject well; but in planning what he is to say it is often well to outline the main part, the discussion, first, in order that the beginning may be best fitted to the really important part.

There are several reasons why an introduction is desirable. When you go to a friend's house and find another guest there, you naturally expect an introduction—a beginning to a possible acquaintance. The custom is not merely one of courtesy. It informs you who the person is, and that he is a friend or acquaintance of your friend. So, the reader wants to know, when he begins an article, what it is about. The subject is made clear by what we call an introduction—a leading into the real subject.

Few of us like abruptness in anything. Perhaps we do not like sudden effects of any kind. They jar on our sense of continuity, and make us feel as if the natural order had been broken. So we like to be gradually accustomed to something new. We want time to readjust our minds and to accommodate ourselves to a new atmosphere,

Smoothness, then, is one reason for the introductory sentences.

If a man picks up a magazine he turns over the pages till he finds a title that attracts him. Then he reads a few sentences or paragraphs, to find out whether the article suits his mood or is worth reading. If he is bored by the first page, he does not, usually, read farther. The listener may not be able to get away from the speaker so easily, but he may let his mind wander, and may go away with little or no idea of what the speech was about, and a feeling that he will try to avoid hearing that man again. Of course, the purpose of the speech has not been carried out. The speaker who interests his hearers at the beginning has the best opportunity.

All introductions should conform to the requirements of clearness, smoothness, and interest. But there are various kinds, differing in method according to the nature and purpose of the speech or article. If one is making an after-dinner speech, he may *refer to something the preceding gentleman said*, or to the *occasion or reason* for his being present. This method is often used in large assemblies, where there are several speakers. This does not imply that an apology is good form at the beginning, unless it can be made humorous. The most common way of beginning is to tell some *reason for taking the subject* under consideration. The present high prices may cause someone to discuss the causes of the high cost of living. The proposal of certain legislation may give rise to the discussion of conditions in a city or in an industry. If the subject is a broad one, the *origin or history* of it may be told. This is especially true of argumentative speeches. For example: people like to know who first suggested or used the initiative or referendum.

In the case of a new subject, or one difficult to understand, some *explanation* may be necessary. A few years ago, most people had an extremely vague idea of what the recall in judicial affairs really meant. If the general subject is large, some limitation may be indicated at the beginning. A speaker on woman suffrage might confine his talk to the movement in America. A *general statement* may be made, from which the speaker leads to the *particular theme* he has in mind. He may make some assertion as to Shaksperean plays, then speak of the tragedies, and finally state his subject as *Julius Cæsar*. Some speakers like to *give their main points* in the introduction, that the hearers may follow them more readily. This is excellent for a long, involved treatment of a difficult subject, but deadens interest in a short talk. Bald statements, such as, "I am now about to address you on—," or, "I will now tell you—" should be avoided.

Frequently, interest is aroused by something definite and vivid. An inspector telling of conditions in the tenements might *describe first a typical scene* in a crowded section. Another may find it more effective to *tell a story*, some trifling incident, humorous or pathetic.

In general, the last sentence of the introduction should be what is called a *theme sentence*, one which expresses briefly but comprehensively the theme of the talk or paper.

Exercise VIII.

- A. Criticize the *introductions* on pages 46-54 for clearness, interest, and smoothness.
- B. Tell to what type each belongs, as to method.

Exercise IX.

Make for each an outline of from two to four points, as

may be necessary, with sub-points, the last main point being the theme sentence.

1. You ask that which he found a piece of property and turned into a free American citizen to speak to you to-night on Abraham Lincoln. I am not fitted by ancestry or training to be your teacher to-night, for, as I have stated, I was born a slave.

My first knowledge of Abraham Lincoln came in this way: I was awakened early one morning before the dawn of day, as I lay wrapt in a bundle of rags on the dirt floor of our slave cabin, by the prayers of my mother, just before leaving for her day's work, as she was kneeling over my body, earnestly praying that Abraham Lincoln might succeed, and that one day she and her boy might be free. You give me the opportunity here this evening to celebrate with you and the nation the answer to that prayer.

From oration on *Abraham Lincoln* by BOOKER T. WASHINGTON. By permission.

2. In speaking to you, men of the greatest city of the West, men of the State which gave to the country Lincoln and Grant, men who preëminently and distinctly embody all that is most American in the American character, I wish to preach, not the doctrine of ignoble ease, but the doctrine of the strenuous life, the life of toil and effort, of labor and strife, to preach that highest form of success which comes, not to the man who desires mere easy peace, but to the man who does not shrink from danger, from hardship, or from bitter toil, and who out of these wins the splendid ultimate triumph.

From "The Strenuous Life," *Essays and Addresses* by THEODORE ROOSEVELT, 1900. By permission of The Century Co.

3. My fellow citizens—No thoughtful man can face the coming election without care and searching of heart. It is not a time for invective or mudslinging. It is not by the road of calumny and vituperation that a nation progresses. It is not by concentrating our attention upon the supposed faults and shortcomings of our great men that our own characters are improved and elevated. Let us try in fairness and justice to review the situation, in order

that we may intelligently and properly perform our duty at the coming election.

From speech in campaign of 1912 by H. L. STIMSON. "Buffalo Express."

4. Mr. Chairman and gentlemen of the convention: I am explaining my vote only because my advice was not followed in my own delegation. I advised that those of us who are instructed for Mr. Clark should continue to vote for him until conditions arose that justified us in doing otherwise. I did not believe that the conditions had arisen, but not all of the delegation agreed with me, and then I was desirous that a poll should not be required, but if we are to have a division, if a poll is demanded and each man must give a reason for a vote that he casts, I am now ready to cast my vote and to give my reasons for so doing.

I have asked the privilege of making an explanation because I am not alone in this convention. I do not represent a one-man opinion. Many of these delegates look at this question as I do, and when I speak for myself I speak for some others in this hall and, I am sure, for a still larger number outside of this hall. I recognize, therefore, the responsibility that rests upon me when I do what I intend to do and I give the explanation that I now propose to give.

From speech in Democratic National Convention, 1912, by WILLIAM J. BRYAN.

5. Mr. Toastmaster and fellow Democrats: We are met to celebrate an achievement. It is an interesting circumstance that principles have no anniversaries. Only the men who embody principles are celebrated upon occasions like this and only the events to which their concerted action gave rise excite our enthusiasm. You know that the principles of the Democratic Party are professed by practically the whole population of the United States. The test of a Democrat is whether he lives up to those principles or not. I have no doubt there are some people in the United States who covertly question the doctrines of Democracy, but nobody challenges them openly. It goes without saying, therefore, that we have not come together merely to state the abstract principles

of our party. We have come together to take counsel as to how it is possible, by courageous and concerted action, to translate them into policy and law.

From speech at Jackson Day dinner, Washington, by WOODROW WILSON, January 8, 1912.

6. Cardinal Farley yesterday visited St. Gabriel's Church on East Thirty-sixth Street, where for seventeen years he was the pastor, to dedicate the new parochial school. After the dedication he delivered an address in the chapel of the new school.

I am full of gratitude to find myself here again among my dear children, for I was pastor of this parish for more than seventeen years and the cross I now wear is very dear to me, for it was given to me by the people of this parish. I first came here twenty-five years ago to succeed our dear founder, the Rev. William H. Clowry, one of the greatest defenders of the Catholic religion, who started this school where none was. The finger of God is seen here and no pleasanter duty could have fallen on me than to be here to bless your school to-day. It used to be my ambition to end my days here, but I always wanted to alter the dark class rooms and get such a building as we now have. But I was called away to other fields of labor and those who came after me have zealously carried out and completed the good work.

The endeavor of Catholic schools is to educate all the faculties God has given them and not only to teach religion, as the calumnious throw in our teeth, but to teach all to be good citizens and patriots.

“New York Times.”

7. As I was speaking to a fellow member of the House of Representatives a few days ago of what I reckon to be the great commercial value of the Philippines, he, being one of those minded to get rid of those islands as quickly as possible, was kind enough to say to me that he preferred “principle rather than pelf.” Before this body of business men I wish emphatically to protest against the idea which prevails too much to-day—that the business world is largely a world of plunder. Not that any responsible group of men quite venture to affirm this to be so, but that their actions and their words almost

or quite assume it as a basis. Certainly a friendly ear is not always turned to the requests of the business community and the sensitiveness of credit seems often to be unknown. It is true that the selfishness of some has reflected to a degree upon us all, but for that reason it is more necessary to affirm, as I now do, that the business men of America are, with rare exceptions, upright and high-minded men, respecting the rights of others, conscious of their duties to their fellows, seeking prosperity through service rather than through selfishness and with personal consciences never so active and with public ideals never so high as to-day. Commerce is the ally of uplift and develops, not destroys. And this great club of 1,600 members is a witness that you as business men meet with open minds; each willing to learn from the other; each glad to give from his knowledge to the other. Therefore it is a special pleasure to talk with you over some of the common problems of our daily work.

From address *Some Phases of the Business Outlook* by the Hon. WILLIAM C. REDFIELD before the Business Men's Club of Cincinnati, Ohio, February 10, 1912.

8. A man who tries to see both sides of a question is sometimes accused of being on both sides by the different parties in the controversy. It is not my purpose to-night to discuss Socialism as an economic doctrine, or a political propaganda, least of all to assail my good friend, the mayor of the city. But when Socialism claims to be a solution of the evils of the world, it necessarily comes under the domain of morals and religion. On this ground I have something to say about the fallacy I see in it as such a solution.

From sermon by DR. FRED W. ADAMS, in reply to an editorial by Mayor Lunn, socialistic in nature. Reported by "Schenectady Union-Star."

9. Man ever aspires to rise above his present level. Consciously or unconsciously he moves onward and upward. With or without clearly defined methods, he labors to diminish human misery and increase human happiness. The past has seen his plans poorly developed. Present philosophy has a clearer conception of life's problems, and better theories for their solution. The present social

discontent has produced various theories of social reconstruction. Prominent among these are Nihilism, Anarchism, Communism, and Socialism. These four are alike, in that they spring from a common cause and are means aimed at a common end.

From *Relation of Modernisms to Progress* by LINDLEY G. LONG, "Winning Speeches," copyright, 1909, by American Book Co. Used by permission.

10. We are just in the throes of tariff revision. Early in March was introduced the Payne bill containing a number of modified duties. At once a highly significant struggle began in Washington. The country seems to have settled upon a downward revision of the tariff, yet each group is jealously guarding its own particular interests. Steel, for example, rasps: "Touch not our sacred schedules!" Lumber and pulp cry: "Cut down your newspapers, not our profits!" Agriculture growls: "Cheap shoes, by all means, but abate no jot of the duty on hides!" Sugar raises the slogan in the South. "Preference for home products!" In short, tariff reduction, in theory acceptable to all, is well-nigh unattainable, simply because every group insists on retaining all the privileges it now enjoys.

This dramatic struggle between clashing interests is typical of the spirit which to-day dominates our national life.

(The speaker shows that this spirit exists in industrial, political, and social life, and appeals for a war in behalf of the public weal.)

From *Inglorious Peace* by CHARLES C. PEARCE, "Winning Speeches," copyright, 1909, by American Book Co. Used by permission.

11. A century ago this world was a slave-holding world. Throughout the earth there was not, and never had been, an important nation where the crack of the slave whip was not heard. To-day there is not a civilized nation on the globe where man can own his fellow man. Not only has the toiler in all civilized lands been made free, but society is educating and uplifting the laborer, is recognizing more and more his worth, his rights, his dignity. This is a great revolution, one of untold meaning to humanity. It has cost years

of violent political contest. In this cause martyrs have died, armies have striven in bloody conflict, and nations have been rent asunder. The turning point of this revolution was reached in our civil war, and the decisive hour of that war occurred when the southern army struggled in mortal combat with the Union forces on the field of Gettysburg. What were the principles there at stake? What was the history of that battle, and what its influence?

From *Gettysburg* by FRED L. INGRAHAM, "Winning Speeches," copyright, 1909, by American Book Co. Used by permission.

12. One hundred millions of people, ninety millions between the oceans and ten millions in our ocean dependencies, constitute our population. To-day, right in the harvest time, we are garnering crops that make possible the greatest prosperity that ever faced this country, and we are to-day where every man and every woman can have work who will, where wages are the highest, and the individual happiness of everyone averages higher than ever before.

I dwell on that fact to-day, borne in upon me by the procession of beautiful children that filed by me this morning, evidencing happy, comfortable homes and moral teaching in the schools and in the homes. It is because this is the fiftieth anniversary of a day as different in respect of the happiness of our people and of the prospect before them as day is from night. Fifty years ago to-day we were in the throes of rebellion, the like of which had never been seen in the world before and I hope may never be seen in the world again.

EX-PRESIDENT TAFT. "New York Times."

On an afternoon in April, 1862, a Northern general saw his beaten army forced back step by step toward the Tennessee River, which apparently cut off all hope of farther retreat. Of forty thousand men that had gone into action under him that morning, scarce a quarter remained in line. Ten thousand were killed, wounded, or prisoners; twenty thousand more had broken from their places at the front and were helpless to resist the enemy's victorious advance. "This looks bad," said one of the general's trusted friends at five o'clock on that eventful afternoon at Pittsburg

Landing. "No," said the Union commander, as he looked at his watch, "they won't quite drive us into the river in the two hours of daylight that remain. They have put in all their men to-day, we shall be reinforced in the night, and to-morrow we shall win." And they did.

Somewhat more than a year later a Confederate general stood on the ridge opposite Gettysburg, watching the failure of the last effort of his army to win a decisive victory on Northern soil. The high hopes of the morning had been shattered by the events of the afternoon. There was no panic among the troops—two years' experience of war had so trained the soldiers of both North and South that they were hardly less steadfast in defeat than in victory—but there were no reinforcements at hand and no ammunition left to fight another battle. Nothing remained but long and perilous retreat through a hostile country. Wrung as his heart was with anguish, the Confederate general yet upheld the spirit of his army by his unfaltering resolution and unchanging, even heightened, courtesy of demeanor. To those under him he gave praise. Whatever blame there was he took to himself. Never did the gallant gentleman who for three years led the army of Northern Virginia show himself more a gentleman than on that disastrous July day when he saw the failure of a battle and foresaw the failure of a cause.

I have chosen these two instances from the lives of the two great leaders on opposite sides, Grant and Lee, because they show the essential reason why those men were leaders. The North had generals whose mere intellectual power of planning battles was better than Grant's. The South had generals whose intellectual power, taken in this same narrow sense, was just as good as Lee's. The quality that lifted these men above their fellows, and gave them the loyal confidence of the soldiers under them and the people behind them, was a moral one. Both were calm men, not unduly exalted by victory nor unduly depressed by defeat—men who could moderate the excitement of those under them when there was danger of rashness, or rouse the courage and endurance of their followers when there was danger of faintness. That was why men loved and

trusted them during their lives; that is why men venerate their memory after they are gone.

It is moral quality of this same sort that is needed to make a man a leader anywhere and in any department of life, to make people love him and trust him and follow him. Life is not a game of chess which is won by the man who can make the best calculations. Now and then a man like Alexander or Napoleon possesses such transcendent intellectual powers that he can treat life as if it were a game, and can dispose of nations and armies as though they were mere castles or pawns on his chess board. But neither a Napoleon nor an Alexander was able to leave an enduring empire. The men whose work has lasted best are those like Lincoln and Washington, like Cromwell and William the Silent; men differing greatly in intellectual gifts, yet marked out above all others by the habit of self-command. Go back through the list of Christian heroes and martyrs, back to Paul, back to Jesus himself, and we find that the thing that counted most in their character and their work was that they had risen above the distractions of success and failure into a command of their own souls, and that this gave them command over the deeds and the souls of others.

We are here to train ourselves for leadership in our several callings. How shall we attain the kind of power that these men possessed, and lead the world to trust us according to our several abilities in the same kind of way that it trusted them?

From Matriculation sermon at Yale University, 1912, by PRESIDENT ARTHUR T. HADLEY. By permission.

14. Mr. President and Gentlemen of the Lotos Club: The legend of the lotus eaters was that if they partook of the fruit of the lotus tree they forgot what had happened in their country and were left in a state of philosophic calm in which they had no desire to return to it.

I do not know what was in the mind of your distinguished Invitation Committee when I was asked to attend this banquet. They came to me before the election. At first I hesitated to accept lest, when the dinner came, by the election I should be shorn of interest as a guest, and be changed from an active and virile par-

ticipant in the day's doings of the Nation to merely a dissolving view.

I knew that generally on an occasion of this sort the motive of the diners was to have a guest whose society should bring them more closely into contact with the great present and future, and not be merely a reminder of what has been. But after further consideration I saw in the name of your club the possibility that you were not merely cold, selfish seekers after pleasures of your own, and that perhaps you were organized to furnish consolation to those who mourn, oblivion to those who would forget, an opportunity for a swan song to those about to disappear.

This thought, prompted by the coming, as one of your committee, of the gentleman who knows everything in the world that has happened and is going to happen, and especially that which is going to happen, by reason of his control of the Associated Press, much diminished my confidence in the victory that was to come on Election Day. I concluded that it was just as well to cast an anchor to the windward and accept as much real condolence as I could gather in such a hospitable presence as this, and therefore, my friends, I accepted your invitation and am here.

You have given me the toast of 'The President,' and I take this toast not merely as one of respect to the office and indicative of your love of country and as typical of your loyalty, but I assume for the purposes of to-night that a discussion of the office which I have held and in which I have rejoiced and suffered will not be inappropriate.

From address by PRESIDENT TAFT, before the Lotus Club of New York, November 16, 1912.

See also pages 355-402.

THE CONCLUSION

The conclusion is even more important than the beginning. It is correspondingly hard to handle. We have often heard people keep on talking long after they had said everything they had to say, just because they did not know how to stop. Others say, "Well, I think that is all I have

to say," and sit down in embarrassment. Yet the ending, rightly handled, is the touchstone of a speaker's power.

If the meaning is likely to be misunderstood, or if the talk is long, a conclusion is necessary for clearness. The hearer wants to remember what was said, and to have a clear idea of the speaker's point of view. He cannot turn back the pages.

An abrupt close is disconcerting. We like to feel that we have had warning of the approaching end, and that we have had a chance to pick up loose ends in our thoughts. Smoothness in discourse always pleases.

Just as an introduction arouses interest, so the conclusion determines the effect left on the audience. It may cause clear and agreeable memories, make the hearer wish for more, or inspire him to apply to his own life and work whatever of good the speaker had for him.

The method or type differs with the subject and the occasion. If one phase has been treated, the suggestion may be made that someone else investigate farther, and give the result. If other parts of the subject have been taken up in another speech, or if time does not permit a fuller discussion, that fact may be mentioned.

If the subject is specific, one may sometimes *go from the particular to the general*. The writer on *Julius Cæsar* may pass from the individual play to brief consideration of certain qualities in all of Shakspere's tragedies, and finally to certain characteristics of all his plays, or of all tragedies. As another means of clearness, the *summary* may be used in long pieces of work, but it is dry and monotonous in a very short one, except in argument, where it is necessary. *Repetition* of the points of the introduction is sometimes an aid to clearness, but, for the sake of variety, should be very carefully used.

Sometimes a personal element may be introduced, leaving the audience in greater sympathy with the speaker. A *narrative* illustrating the theme may be given. The personal opinion of the speaker, formed after observation of the conditions he has told about, causes others to think for themselves, agreeing or disagreeing. The impression made on one who has been in close touch with the facts may be used with great effect, arousing in the hearers similar sensations. Most people respond more quickly to the individual than to the general.

The most effective and valuable kind of ending probably is that of *application*. What is the possible remedy for such a state of affairs as we have found? Have those tried been reasonably successful? If not, why? Perhaps the plan suggested by Mr. B. may be worth trying. The speaker has a plan that might be carried out. Many speeches call for immediate action. If a certain law is desirable, it is the duty of the hearers to get it enacted. If money is needed, give it at once. People sometimes need just this spur of verbal attack or suggestion to drive them to action.

The forms of beginning and ending mentioned are, after all, only general, and admit of much variation. Other suggestions will be given in connection with argumentation. Pages 270 and 297.

Exercise X.

Criticize the *conclusions* on the following pages for clearness, smoothness, and effect or impression.

Tell to what type each belongs, as to method.

Exercise XI.

Make an outline for each.

1. The soul is not a shadow. The body is. Genius is not a shadow, it is substance. Patriotism is not a shadow; it is light. Great purposes, and the spirit that counts death nothing, in contrast with the honor and welfare of our country—these are the witnesses that man is not a passing vapor, but an immortal spirit.

From *True Greatness* by THOMAS STARR KING.

2. Surely, if the immortal dead, serene with the wisdom of eternity, are not above all joy, and pride, he must feel a thrill to know that no mariner or merchant ever sent forth a venture upon unknown seas which came back with richer cargoes or with statelier ships.

From speech on *Grant's Work* by THOMAS B. REED.

3. From our investigation three points are clear: (1) the extent and efficiency of women's work for public schools have been exaggerated because it has been assumed that certain striking examples of coöperation indicate general conditions prevailing everywhere; (2) there are openings for college women in school coöperation whether they want personal connection, club connection, or paid professional positions; (3) our colleges are not giving us the training we need to do efficient work as volunteers. Ask any school or health official or business man what he thinks of our volunteer work. I am sure our reputation does not fairly express our possibilities. The A.C.A. stands for efficient community work, including efficient volunteer service. Its demand will be heard that our colleges teach us *how* to work so that our services will not only be welcome, but will be progressively valuable.

From address *What Women Have Done for Public Schools* by ELSA DENNISON, "Journal of Association of Collegiate Alumnae."

4. See page 48 for introduction to address concluding as follows:

Finally, gentlemen, I have not sought to deal with details but with essentials, and the most essential thing in our shop is, or ought to be, ourselves. Therefore, I have tried plainly to speak to you of our own needs for self-help. The same thing in our industrial

life that we teach our children in our private lives. Let us therefore lay down certain laws for ourselves:

A thing is not right because we do it.

A method is not good because we use it.

Equipment is not the best because we own it.

The wisest of us has much to learn.

None of us can afford to be deceived about our own affairs.

It is better by self-criticism to find and correct our own faults than to have our customers do it for us.

It is a sound law of the business world—"To thine own self be true, and it must follow, as the night the day, thou canst not then be false to any man."

And I end as I began. To get by the law of gouge and grasp is not true commerce. Against that law our enlightened business sense protests, and with equal force it protests against the wicked assumption that our business men are in any large part under the control of the law of gouge and grasp.

Commerce is service, the friend of the worker, the servant of the consumer. I venture a protest against the spirit of attack that far too much prevails. Criticism should be a sane and sober process. This is not found in that tyrannous type of mind that involves those who disagree with it in torrents of common abuse and denunciation. All are not wicked at whom mud is thrown and righteousness is not advanced by evil means. We believe in progress; it is a law of business to do so. But we believe also in moderation and base our hopes for the future on moderate progressiveness and on progressive moderation, in public as well as in business affairs.

From address on *Some Phases of the Business Outlook* by WILLIAM C. REDFIELD.

5. See page 47 for introduction to address concluding as follows:

The only thing that can ever make a free country is to keep a free and hopeful heart under every jacket in it, and then there will be an irrepressible vitality, then there will be an irrepressible ideal which will enable us to be Democrats of the sort that when we die we shall look back and say: 'Yes; from time to time we

differed with each other as to what ought to be done, but, after all, we followed the same vision, after all we worked slowly, stumbling through dark and doubtful passages onward to a common purpose and a common ideal.' Let us apologize to each other that we ever suspected or antagonized one another; let us join hands once more all around the great circle of community of council and of interest which will show us at the last to have been indeed the friends of our country and the friends of mankind.

From speech at Jackson Day dinner by WOODROW WILSON.

6. To think of good business without thinking of these contributory causes to good business on the one hand, these dangers to good business on the other hand—to think of good business without thinking of social justice, industrial evolution, and the measure of socialism that is gripping our country to-day—is to view the situation with the complacency with which the monarchy and aristocracy of France viewed the situation before the outbreak of the French revolution.

From speech *Responsibility of the Business Man* in campaign of 1912 by FRANK A. MUNSEY.

7. Our cause, then, must be intrusted to, and conducted by, its own undoubted friends—those whose hands are free, whose hearts are in the work—who *do care* for the result. Two years ago the Republicans of the nation mustered over thirteen hundred thousand strong. We did this under the single impulse of resistance to a common danger, with every external circumstance against us. Of strange, discordant, and even hostile elements, we gathered from the four winds, and formed and fought the battle through, under the constant hot fire of a disciplined, proud, and pampered enemy. Did we brave all then, to falter now?—now, when that same enemy is wavering, dissevered and belligerent? The result is not doubtful. We shall not fail—if we stand firm, we *shall not fail*. Wise counsels may accelerate, or mistakes delay it, but, sooner or later, the victory is sure to come.

From speech at Republican Convention, Springfield, 1858 by ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

8. See page 46 for introduction to address concluding as follows:

And so, my friends, you have to choose between these two great different courses of action. We believe in going forward; we believe that the lines upon which this nation has been acting during the last decade are right; we believe that the great problems of modern life require the best study, the best training and the most consistent effort that this nation can put into them; we believe that the science of government involves greater responsibility and the exercise of greater power than ever before; we believe that in order to preserve to every citizen the opportunities and benefits of our present civilization we require more government and more intelligent government every year; we believe that the great social problems of humanity about which so much has been said during this campaign can only be solved by a faithful, conscientious and intelligent exercise of the national power, such as the Republican party has been developing for fifty years. We think it is a bad time to go backward or to try new experiments. While we are ready to go forward as fast as the way can be cleared by patient and careful study, we ask you to be on your guard against impulse and passion and resentment.

The great work of government can only be accomplished by patience, courage and forbearance. Let us see to it that our ballots are cast in that spirit. Let us remember the great responsibilities, reaching even as far as these far-off lands, which rest upon the decision we shall reach in November, and, in the spirit of the faith which has carried us thus far, let us make that decision then.

From campaign speech, Buffalo, 1912 by H. L. STIMSON.

See pages 297-8, 357-402 for other examples.

The person who thoroughly prepares himself for a talk, short or long, on any occasion, has two great advantages. His material is presented clearly, in an orderly manner, at its best. Whatever the speaker can do, he is able to do with this subject at this time. He will not feel chagrined afterward. His part before the audience has been made easier. He knows that the greater part of his work is done before he rises to speak. He is able, since the plan

has been made, to give care and thought to the immediate expression. There will be greater ease and security, resulting in a better impression.

Much is said of the value of the habit of extemporaneous speech. This is great. The naturalness, the spontaneity, of unpremeditated speech is full of charm. It wins admiration. Moreover, the ability to speak without previous notice prevents embarrassment and makes one always ready to respond. But how do people acquire this very desirable power? They attain it, not at once, not, in most cases, as a result of aptitude, but as a result of the trained habit of thinking in an orderly manner and of expressing themselves without fear or hesitation. The persistence in habits of careful preparation will produce extemporaneous speakers of power.

CHAPTER III

EXPRESSION AS CONDITIONED BY THOUGHT

ONE may have something to say of vital importance, and may have his material well arranged in his mind, yet fail utterly to gain or hold the attention of his audience, or to make his ideas theirs. On the manner of expression, after all, depends to a great degree the effect of the spoken communication.

The term *expression* covers much that must be considered by the successful speaker. His method of saying things, arrangement of paragraphs, sentences, and words, choice of words and pronunciation of them, his manner of placing himself before the audience, his use of the body as an aid, and his control over the voice, all determine expression.

THE PARAGRAPH

The planning of a talk involves, to some extent, the paragraph division. You may think that paragraphing belongs only to writing, but it is as essential a part of speaking. In fact, since the hearer is deprived of that aid in distinguishing the parts of the composition, the paragraph indentation, he must be the more clearly made aware of the parts by oral paragraphing.

The word paragraph means a *writing beside*. The sign was used to call attention to something in the text, generally a change of subject. If you look at the King James version of the Bible, you will see this use illustrated. In

modern writing the paragraph has become the unit of expression.

This emphasis on the paragraph is, however, a late development in our use of English. As late as the Elizabethan age, even the best writers had little sense of the relation of sentences. If you read the prose of that period, you will find it very difficult to comprehend what the writer was trying to say, and still more difficult to grasp his ideas in logical relation. Bacon arranged his thoughts clearly, but his essays were not of the kind to emphasize structure. Sir William Temple, in the late seventeenth century, had, as Professor Minto says, "a certain apprehension, however faint," of paragraph method. Addison, famous for the smoothness of his style, was as notable for loose arrangement. Dr. Johnson was the first to bring into prominence, if he did not originate it, the practice of stating a general principle and following it by the particulars in arranged sentences. Though the marvelous use of illustration in various forms made Burke's statements clear, and though he often expressed in a sentence the topic of a single paragraph, he did not pay great attention to the connection of sentences.

It remained, then, for the nineteenth century, so rich in poetic form, to develop and formulate the theory of the paragraph, and thus help bring to perfection the art of English prose. De Quincey gave, as "the two capital secrets in the art of prose composition . . . the philosophy of transition and connection," and "the way in which sentences are made to modify each other." Professor Bain, a Scottish philosopher, undertook to lay down rules for the paragraph. Macaulay paid more attention to paragraph structure than most writers. As the century grew old, many students, by a careful study of the best in the

works of great writers and speakers, were able to set forth some general qualities found in these works, and to formulate the methods used. In this way, we have learned how we, too, may emulate the best.

There are two reasons why the paragraph should receive so much attention. For a short composition or talk, on a simple subject, it is the only practicable form. In longer articles or speeches it is the means of setting off and developing clearly and smoothly each division or subdivision of the subject. Without the paragraph, the mass of material poured out before the public in these days would be confused, and fail utterly to penetrate the minds of most of us.

The qualities found to be vital to the paragraph are, in general, those essential to any written or oral composition taken as a whole. The first is *unity*. The paragraph must have a *central idea*, with lesser ones dependent on it. There should be *no digression*. When this central thought is determined, it must be expressed, in clear, concise, comprehensive form, in what is called the *topic sentence*. Often this is placed at the beginning or after an introductory sentence, but it may be in the middle or at the end. Indeed, some good writers and speakers express the topic of one paragraph at the beginning of the next. In speaking, the beginning is, for the sake of clearness, usually the best, though repetition at the beginning of the next often aids. The closing sentence may often be made to help unify the paragraph, by repetition in other words, of the central thought, or by summarizing. Within the paragraph each subdivision should have a sentence or clause to denote it, followed by such sentences as are necessary to treat that phase. *Keeping the same point of view* throughout, aids in giving the impression of unity.

Another quality that makes the talk pleasing to the hearer is **coherence**. This is obtained in two ways. *The order of treatment* should be natural and logical. What point will best serve to lead up to the chief point? What will be the smoothest progression? Then, *the parts must be fastened together* so that no gaps need be bridged by the mind of the hearer at the expense of the vital points. The hearer cannot go back and find the missed connection. It must be made for him so that he cannot miss it. For this, words, phrases, and clauses, even whole sentences, may be employed. Personal and demonstrative pronouns, time words, adverbs and phrases of place, expressions of comparison and of result, may all be used. It is best, however, to avoid using the same words of coherence frequently, and to use those for which there is some reason, lest they seem put there only because the speaker thought vaguely that he must insert some connective. *This, that, it, however, nevertheless, in fact, then, too, afterward, meanwhile, on the other hand, but, on the contrary, therefore, as a result, so,* are examples of words that may be used. When you speak, it is harder to think of the proper connectives than when you write. Therefore, it is wise to practice consciously the art of connecting sentences.

See transitional sentences, page 247.

Since it is impossible for even the best mind to retain all that a speaker says, it is especially necessary that the speaker obey the rules of **emphasis**. Otherwise, the impression left on the hearer will not be what was intended. *Proportion* must be observed. The most important point should be given most time, though not so much as to dwarf the others in comparison. One-third of the material should

never take two-thirds of the presentation. Some speakers dwell so long on the first part, though it may be of the least value, that as the time for closing approaches they are forced to crowd in all the rest, leaving out much of the development. Although one should not keep his eyes glued to a clock, an occasional swift glance at a watch at one's side may help in avoiding this. It is well to *work up to a climax* by expressing the strongest, most effective point last. Anti-climax gives the impression of weakness and indicates that the speaker had no more of real value to say, and that he added something just to fill up time. Though first impressions of persons may be the most lasting, last impressions are, in speech, more forcible. The beginning as well as the ending counts in right emphasis. A good start looks forward. A good close reflects the merit of the effort.

Probably the great men whose works we study never thought of naming the various kinds of paragraphs they used, but we, who have to develop a lesser talent, find it convenient for the sake of distinguishing methods. In telling a story, we use the *narrative*, or time method. In description, or the enumeration of facts, we find *detail or particulars* necessary. If we wish to make something very clear to one who does not understand it, we *define* or *explain*. Sometimes the same end is gained by *repetition* in other words, or by *amplification* of the general statements. A *principle or theory may be applied* to some specific or concrete instance. Any statement or generalization may be illustrated by mention of numerous *examples*, or recital at greater length of some incident that points the statement. If there is likelihood of doubt, *proofs* may be adduced. The statement of *a cause* may be followed by an account of *the results*. Two persons or things or conditions may be

compared, showing either likenesses or differences. Sometimes negation, or telling what a thing is not, may be used both for definition and comparison. Indeed, some good paragraphs are made up by combining several of these methods.

Exercise I.

Study the following paragraphs with regard to technique.

a. Unity. What sentence expresses the topic? Is it a good one for the purpose? What points are included in the development? Are they vitally related to the topic sentence?

b. Coherence. Comment on the order of development. What connectives are used? How? Are they the best?

c. Emphasis. Is the proportion good? Is the most forcible order used? Are the first and last sentences adapted to their uses? Does the whole leave a good impression? Does the speaker use too many words?

Exercise II.

Study the same paragraphs for method of development. Can you distinguish the type? Is it the most suitable for the subject?

1. It was the custom of the primitive Romans to preserve in the halls of their houses the images of all the illustrious men whom their families had produced. These images are supposed to have consisted of a mask exactly representing the countenance of each deceased individual, accompanied with habiliments of like fashion with those worn in his time, and with the armor, badges, and insignia of his offices and exploits: all so disposed around the sides of the hall as to present, in the attitude of living men, the long succession of the departed; and thus to set before the Roman citizen, whenever he entered or left his house, the venerable array of his ancestors revived in this imposing similitude. Whenever, by a death in the family, another distinguished member of it was gathered to his fathers, a strange and awful procession was formed. The ancestral

masks, including those of the newly deceased, were fitted upon the servants of the family, selected of the size and appearance of those whom they were intended to represent, and drawn up in solemn array to follow the funeral train of the living mourners, first to the market-place, where the public eulogium was pronounced, and then to the tomb. As he thus moved along, with all the great fathers of his name quickening, as it were, from their urns, to enkindle his emulation, the virtuous Roman renewed his vows of respect to their memory, and his resolution to imitate their fortitude, frugality, and patriotism.

From *Adams and Jefferson* by EDWARD EVERETT.

2. Now their separate characters are briefly these. The man's power is active, progressive, defensive. He is eminently the doer, the creator, the discoverer, the defender. His intellect is for speculation and invention; his energy for adventure, for war, and for conquest wherever war is just, wherever conquest necessary. But the woman's power is for rule, not for battle,—and her intellect is not for invention or creation, but for sweet ordering, arrangement, and decision. She sees the qualities of things, their claims, and their places. Her great function is Praise; she enters into no contest, but infallibly adjudges the crown of contest. By her office, and place, she is protected from all danger and temptation. The man, in his rough work in the open world, must encounter all peril and trial:—to him, therefore, must be the failure, the offence, the inevitable error; often he must be wounded, or subdued: often misled; and *always* hardened. But he guards the woman from all this; within his house, as ruled by her, unless she herself has sought it, need enter no danger, no temptation, no cause of error or offence.

From *Sesame and Lilies* by JOHN RUSKIN.

3 What is anarchy? It is a very old spirit, and has existed from the earliest ages. It has manifested itself in every age and in nearly every man. We see it in the child, in its first childish defiance of parental law. It manifests itself in every community; there are anarchists here, and there are anarchists all over the world. Wherever men are determined to do their own will, or pleasure, irre-

spective of the laws which have been enacted for public welfare—there is the spirit of anarchy. Every criminal has it

“No thief e'er felt the halter draw,
With good opinion of the law.”

Arson, theft, drunkenness, adultery, murder—all the horrible crimes which have ever been committed—are its natural fruit. And the unending struggle of humanity, from the earliest age, has been to gain the victory over this vile spirit, and bring it into subjection.

From *The State versus Anarchy* by L. CLARK SEELYE.

4. We claim that we are entitled to a popular vote of confidence at the coming election because we have demonstrated that we are the party of affirmative, constructive policies for the betterment and progress of our country in all the fields upon which the activity and influence of Government can rightly enter. We claim it because we have shown ourselves a party of honest, efficient, and economical administration in which public moneys are faithfully applied, appointments are made on grounds of merit, efficient service is rigorously exacted, graft is reduced to a minimum, derelictions from official duty are sternly punished, and a high standard of official morality is maintained. We claim it because we have maintained and promoted peace with the world, and the dignity, honor, and just interests of the United States among the nations. We claim it because our party stands now, as it has ever stood, for order and liberty and for the maintenance of the constitutional system of government through which a self-controlled democracy for more than a century has established against all detractors the competency of the American people to govern themselves in law-abiding prosperity.

From opening speech at Republican National Convention, 1912,
by ELIHU ROOT.

5. Second, the railroads should be permitted to earn and hold a surplus equal to fifty per cent of the amount they pay out in dividends, to be held for emergencies and applied to improved facilities. There are many expenses, and new ones constantly arising, that

must not be added to capital charge unless rates are to be made that the public cannot and ought not to be asked to bear. In addition to the heavy demands of the ordinary growth of traffic, there are many extraordinary expenses. Public authorities do not hesitate to order the railroads to provide additional equipment. This, being only partially under the owner's control, is soon scattered over the country. The weaker roads prefer paying a per diem charge to buying for themselves. This compels the stronger roads practically to provide new equipment for the whole country and pay the cost of it from their own resources. Grade crossings must be eliminated both in the cities and in the country. The ordering of these is held to be a legitimate part of the police power of the state, whose exercise is unlimited. To raise or lower tracks at a single city may cost millions of dollars. This class of expenses grows very rapidly in the United States as population becomes denser. Safety appliances must be adopted. Ingenuity is adding yearly to the number of these; and the public demands rightly that they be put into use as soon as their value is demonstrated. But all these things take money—and a great deal of it.

From *The Necessity of Terminal Facilities for Railroads* by JAMES J. HILL.

6. Even some little time after the iceberg was struck it did not occur to me that there was the least danger, and I thought of going to bed. Then the officers began to come along the decks and tell the passengers that though there was no danger it might be as well if the passengers got into the boats as a matter of precaution. A number of people were strolling along talking about the experience that the ship had just gone through and for a time no one was willing to get into any of the boats. At last a few did get in, and by degrees the meaning of it all was realized.

7. After waiting for an interminable time with the collapsible boat in my hands I felt the Titanic sinking under my feet. I could feel her going under at the bows. The storage batteries furnishing the light again gave out, and there was darkness. I tried to wait, but suddenly found myself leaping from the rail, away up in the air, and I felt an eternity before I hit the water.

When I came to I felt myself drawn into the suction, and when I felt a cake of ice near I clung to it.

Extracts from accounts of the Titanic Disaster, as given "New York Times" reporter.

8. Those 900,000 homesteaders and the entries of thousands of preëmption claimants, desert land, and stone and timber entrymen, as well as the railroads themselves, have culled over the lands of the Western States until to-day there only remain the lands that have been during all of these years and up to the present passed over many times and rejected as unfit for cultivation and not worth the effort required for their reclamation. The result is that at the present time not only are our home seekers becoming more and more reluctant to take the remaining isolated tracts of land, but the stringency of the rulings of the Department of the Interior and the construction placed upon the existing laws are, in the judgment of your committee, seriously retarding the development of the West. This statement is conclusively borne out by the very rapidly decreasing number of original entries.

SENATOR TAYLOR. "Congressional Record."

9. There is no test of a man's ability in any department of public life more severe than service in the House of Representatives; there is no place where so little deference is paid to reputation previously acquired or eminence won outside; no place where so little consideration is shown for the feelings or failures of beginners. What a man gains in the House he gains by sheer force of his own character, and if he loses and falls back he must expect no mercy and will receive no sympathy. It is a field in which the survival of the strongest is the recognized rule and where no pretense can deceive and no glamour can mislead. The real man is discovered, his words are impartially weighed, his rank is irreversibly decreed.

From speech on *Garfield* by JAMES G. BLAINE. "World's Best Orations," copyright by Ferd. P. Kaiser Publishing Co.

10. I do then declare my conviction, and wish it may stand recorded to posterity, that there never was a bad man that had ability for good service. It is not in the nature of such men; their minds are

so distorted to selfish purposes, to knavish, artificial, and crafty means of accomplishing those selfish ends, that, if put to any good service, they are poor, dull, helpless. Their natural faculties never had that direction,—they are paralytic on that side; the muscles, if I may use that expression, that ought to remove it, are all dead. They know nothing but how to pursue selfish ends by wicked and indirect means. No man ever knowingly employed a bad man on account of his abilities, but for evil ends.

From speech *On Impeachment of Hastings*. BURKE.

11. The circumstances of our day are so utterly different from those of Jefferson's day that it may seem nothing less than an act of temerity to attempt to say what Jefferson would do if he were now alive and guiding us with his vision and command. The world we live in is no longer divided into neighborhoods and communities; the lines of the telegraph thread it like nerves uniting a single organism. The ends of the earth touch one another and exchange impulse and purpose. America has swung out of her one-time isolation and has joined the family of nations. She is linked to mankind by every tie of blood and circumstance. She is more cosmopolitan in her make-up than any other nation of the world; is enriched by a greater variety of energy drawn from strong peoples the world over. She is not the simple, homogeneous, rural nation that she was in Jefferson's time, making only a beginning at development and the conquest of fortune; she is great and strong; above all she is infinitely varied; her affairs are shot through with emotion and the passion that comes with strength and growth and self-confidence. We live in a new and strange age and reckon with new affairs alike in economics and politics of which Jefferson knew nothing.

From speech *What Jefferson Would Do* by WOODROW WILSON at Jefferson Day Dinner, 1912.

12. Those who look only at the surface of things and judge trade unionism by an occasional glimpse are likely to underestimate the uplifting influence of this institution upon the character of the wage-earner. Trade unionism distinctly raises the moral tone of

the wage-earner by infusing into him a sense of the dignity of labor. There is much lip service paid to the ennobling effect of labor and the dignity it confers upon the workman, but it is the trade union, more than any other institution, that translates these mere professions into actual deeds. The unionist feels that it is not the work itself but the spirit in which the work is accepted and performed that ennobles the worker. The principal element that gives to labor its dignity is its voluntary character. There was nothing ennobling in the toil of the slave, crouching beneath the lash; there was nothing ennobling in the work of the serf, bowed down by the weight of ages; there is little of the dignity of labor in the forced work of the convict or of the man toiling under the padrone system; there is, indeed, little dignity and nothing ennobling in the work of any man whose earnings of to-day are absolutely necessary that he may live to-morrow. The greater the initiative and the more complete the independence of the worker the greater the pleasure in his work and the more ennobling it becomes.

From an address *Philosophy, Purposes and Ideals of the Trade Union Movement* by JOHN MITCHELL.

13. It is upon the manual toilers, upon those who literally eat their bread in the sweat of their face, that the burdens of our modern industrial system and of our largely commercialized civilization bear the heaviest. They realize the inequalities of that system more keenly than those who have fared better economically. They come face to face with the concrete shortcomings of that civilization; they realize in their own daily lives of poorly requited toil how far that civilization is from its ideals. All this fosters discontent; but it is not necessarily a discontent, pessimistic, hopeless, despairing, sodden. It is a discontent that is hopeful, optimistic, ambitious, militant. It is the discontent that stimulates to struggle, that turns one's mind and thoughts from the mere contemplation of the failures of our system of civilization to its ideals and its unrealized possibilities. And for this reason the seeming paradox is true, that among those who are held down closest to the struggle for the mere necessities of life, who enjoy least of the material and

the intellectual fruits of our civilization, who live most in its toil, its smoke, and its grime, and least in its leisure and its sunshine—that among these one finds most frequently the optimist and the idealist.

From address *Interest of the Wage Earner in the Peace Movement* by CHARLES PATRICK NEILL. By courtesy of American Association for International Conciliation.

14. How much of the excellence of our great writers from Milton, Jeremy Taylor, and Baxter downward is traceable to their knowledge of the diction of the Bible? We can feel it in four great masters of our tongue who adorned the last generation, to all of whom the Scriptures were familiar from childhood. We recognize it in the speeches of John Bright and Abraham Lincoln, in the sermons and essays of Cardinal Newman, and in the earlier writings of Thomas Carlyle before his style became Germanized. The names of Lincoln and Bright suggest the immense and unique service which this translation rendered to men of our stock. It brought this wonderful storehouse of historical narrative and moral reflection, this incomparable record of the progress of the human spirit and of all the forms in which its conception of the relations of men to God were expressed within the reach of those who, like Bright, received no very wide education, and those who, like Lincoln, received no education at all. This vast realm of knowledge and imagination, embracing so much of human life and thought—these words of lofty and ardent thinkers, touching the heart and making all its deepest chords vibrate, came within the grasp and were familiar to the ordinary man and woman and became to many of them the only intellectual stimulus and the only moral guidance they ever received. These were the foundation of Christian life not merely to the wise and learned, but to whoever could read or listen to the reading of the sacred words—to the humble cottager of England, to the lonely shepherd upon Scottish moors, to the early settlers wringing a scanty livelihood from the rocky hillsides of New England.

From speech at Bible Tercentenary by JAMES BRYCE. "Bible Society Record."

15. There have been men of this quality in the world. It is recorded of Bernardino of Siena that, when he came into the room, his gentleness and purity were so evident that all that was base and silly in the talk of his companions was abashed and fell into silence. Artists like Fra Angelico have made their pictures like prayers. Warriors like Chevalier Bayard and Sir Philip Sidney and Henry Havelock and Chinese Gordon have dwelt amid camps and conflicts as Knights of the Holy Ghost. Philosophers like John Locke and George Berkeley, men of science like Newton and Herschel, poets like Wordsworth and Tennyson and Browning have taught virtue by their lives as well as wisdom by their works. Humanitarians like Howard and Wilberforce and Raikes and Charles Brace have given themselves to noble causes. Every man who will has it in his power to make his life count for something positive in the redemption of society. And this is what every man of moral principle is bound to do if he wants to belong to the salt of the earth.

16. There is a loftier ambition than merely to stand high in the world. It is to stoop down and lift mankind a little higher. There is a nobler character than that which is merely incorruptible. It is the character which acts as an antidote and preventive of corruption. Fearlessly to speak the words which bear witness to righteousness and truth and purity; patiently to do the deeds which strengthen virtue and kindle hope in your fellow men; generously to lend a hand to those who are trying to climb upward; faithfully to give your support and your personal help to the efforts which are making to elevate and purify the social life of the world,—that is what it means to have salt in your character. And that is the way to make your life interesting and savory and powerful. The men that have been happiest, and the men that are the best remembered, are the men that have done good.

Selections from *Salt* by HENRY VAN DYKE.

In addition to the various types of isolated paragraphs, there are short link paragraphs, used to connect where the transition cannot easily be made, and introductory and concluding paragraphs. These do not always have topic

sentences, as they are not of importance in themselves, but only as they lead to others. One idea suggests another. Whatever subject is suggested is only touched upon, since it is subsidiary to the thought of the whole talk.

17. But that is not enough; that is not all. All histories of wild and savage people, all the histories of lawless and undisciplined men, all the histories of civil wars and revolutions, all the histories of discord and strife which checks the onward march of civilization and holds a people stationary until they go down instead of going up, admonish us that it is not enough to be independent and courageous.

From *The Spirit of Self-Government* by ELIHU ROOT.

Study the examples given on pages 245-246.

In connection with paragraph subjects given in following pages, allied phases of the general subject might be discussed by other pupils.

Exercise III.

Construct a topic sentence, outline main points, and at least first order of sub-points, and develop a paragraph on one of the following. See specimen outline, page 77.

1. Qualities of a book worth reading.
2. Characteristics of a good librarian, or policeman, or nurse, or saleswoman.
3. Powers of a policeman, or postmaster, or a minor city officer.
4. Causes of forest fires, or floods, or volcanic eruptions, or earthquakes.
5. Causes of some recent labor strike.
6. The factors in the struggle for existence.
7. The sequence in which the biologic sciences should be studied.
8. The life history of the salmon, or the butterfly, or the frog.
9. The value of scientific classification.
10. The value of the use of Latin scientific terms.

11. Value of birds, or of the honeybee, or worms.
12. Uses of the telegraph, or wireless at sea, or the aëroplane in war.
13. Purposes of the study of geometry.
14. Value of the study of history, or Latin, or French, or German, or of some one science.
15. The value of museums, or parks.
16. Geographic advantages of Rome, or of England, of New York, of New Orleans, of San Francisco, of Chicago.
17. Advantages our town has for a certain factory.
18. Benefits of the ——— railway to our town.
19. Value of the county seat to a town.
20. How Cæsar gained a hold on his men.

THE BENEFITS OF VACATION.

The great amount of travel on railway and steamship lines every summer indicates that, more and more, people are realizing the value of a vacation.

- I. Vacation enables one to rest.
 - A. Physically.
 1. Relaxation of body.
 2. Healthful exercise.
 - a. Providing change of activity.
 - b. Counteracting nerve strain.
 - B. Mentally.
 1. Less concentration necessary.
 2. No anxiety over work.
- II. Vacation is a time for recreation.
 - A. Opportunity to enjoy scenery.
 1. Time to reach distant places.
 2. Time to visit places of interest in the vicinity.
 - B. Possibility of taking up some favorite pursuit, such as
 1. Playing some game.
 2. Caring for flowers.
 3. Drawing.

III. One's ability to work is renewed.

A. Bodily.

1. Ability to exert greater physical strength.
2. Ability to endure the strain of continued effort.
3. Control of nerves.

B. Mentally.

1. Interest renewed.
2. View broadened, balanced.

Exercise IV.

Construct a topic sentence, outline the points, and develop a paragraph orally on one of the following subjects:

1. My idea of the essential characteristics of a lady, or of a gentleman.
2. The ideal pupil.
3. The ideal office-holder.
4. What a novel is, or a play, or an allegory, or a romance.
5. The trial jury, or the grand jury.
6. What a constitution is.
7. What a republic, or a democracy, or a monarchy, or an empire, is.
8. The writ of habeas corpus.
9. Cæsar's camp formation.
10. The formation of the phalanx.
11. The equipment of a foot-soldier in Cæsar's time, or now, in the American army.
12. How crowds are managed by the police.
13. How electric storms are caused, or hail storms, or snow on the mountains.
14. Why the tide rises and falls.
15. What an eclipse is.
16. The principles of photography.
17. Structure of the camera.
18. The principle of the thermometer, or the hygrometer, or the telescope, or the microscope.

19. The turbine water-wheel, or the electric motor in street cars run without trolleys.
20. The composition of coal.
21. Structure of the butterfly's wing.
22. How the caterpillar spins a cocoon.
23. How the cricket chirps, or the katydid makes its sound.
24. How dandelions are propagated.
25. How seedless oranges, or grapes, are obtained.
26. How soil is loosened.
27. How plants obtain sustenance from the air.
28. How the bee gathers pollen and honey.
29. How the piano is played. (Structure.)

Exercise V.

Construct the topic sentence, plan the outline, and develop the paragraph orally by the method of *comparison*, on one of the following. See page 68, example 2; page 72, example 11.

1. Comparison of the novel and the drama.
2. Argumentation and exposition, or description and exposition.
3. Comparison of two characters in a novel you are reading.
4. Comparison of two novels or of two plays as to interest.
5. Comparison of the style of two authors whose books you have read.
6. Comparison of two magazines or of two newspapers, as to nature of contents.
7. A republic compared to a monarchy.
8. Comparison of the chief principles of two parties at present.
9. The principles of the Federalists and the Anti-Federalists.
10. Patricians and Plebeians.
11. Athenian and Spartan education.
12. Social life in public schools as compared with that in private schools.
13. How basket-ball as played by girls differs from the boys' game.
14. How American football differs from Rugby football.
15. Comparison of trees and herbs.

16. Comparison of the vertebrate eye and the camera.
17. The circulatory systems of a man and a fish, or of a fish and a crayfish.
18. Comparison of kinetic and potential energy.
19. Noise and music.
20. The tungsten, or Mazda lamp and the common incandescent lamp.
21. Comparison of two kinds of heat radiators.
22. Centripetal and centrifugal forces.
23. The plum and the peach, or the pear and the apple.
24. Comparison of the dog and the cat as domestic animals.
25. The comparative desirability of two routes to Chicago, or to New York, or to Boston.
26. The work of the architect and of the carpenter in building a house.
27. The work of the city mail-carrier as compared with the work of the rural carrier.
28. The advantages of the electric car as compared to the horse-car.

Exercise VI.

Develop a paragraph on one of the following by *illustration*. See page 75, example 15.

1. How men of great wealth use it for the people.
2. Congestion in the city of _____.
3. The trying life of a physician, or of a clergyman, or of a settlement worker.
4. The possibility of rising from lowliness to a high position.
5. The possibility of a poor boy obtaining a college education.
6. The queer use of English.
7. Shakspere's use of history.
8. Fads of society women.
9. Hobbies of prominent men.
10. Eccentricities of men of genius.
11. Methods of helping the poor.
12. Spirit of some athletes.

13. The value of accuracy.
14. The danger of carelessness.
15. The crowded conditions on _____ Street.
16. How children often amuse themselves.
17. The saving of babies by pure milk.
18. What the Fresh Air Fund means to some children.
19. Manners in this decade.
20. The danger in practical joking.
21. "An ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure."
22. "All's well that ends well."

Exercise VII.

Plan and develop a paragraph to *prove* or *disprove* one of the following topics. See page 69, example 5, and page 71, example 10.

1. Physical culture is a benefit to health.
2. Football is a dangerous form of athletics.
3. Football develops manly qualities in the players.
4. Basket-ball is an excellent exercise for girls.
5. Music improves the mind.
6. Sewing, or cooking, should be taught in schools.
7. Manual training is of great benefit to pupils.
8. Literary societies are a benefit to high school pupils.
9. There should be a gymnasium in every school building.
10. There should be a large playground for every school.
11. The country boy has many advantages over the city boy.
12. It is improbable that any one language will become universal.
13. Graduation from a high school is of value to a boy who goes into business.
14. Synthetic rubber is likely to take the place of natural rubber.
15. The voters of to-day are more independent than those of a generation ago.
16. A knowledge of Latin is of practical value.
17. New York City is becoming a summer resort.
18. The winters are less severe than formerly in the Middle Atlantic States.

19. The earth is not a perfect sphere.
20. New York State is a glaciated region.
21. The glacier helped make New York the Empire State.
22. A molecule of hydrogen consists of two atoms.

Exercise VIII.

Develop one of the following subjects into a paragraph by *cause and effect*. See examples on page 71, example 8, and page 73, example 13.

1. Effects of exploration and travel in Elizabethan times.
2. How the ——— flood was caused.
3. The working of conscription in foreign armies.
4. The present high cost of shoes, or eggs, or aluminum utensils.
5. The lowered cost of typewriters, or of automobiles.
6. The use of Chinese hair in large quantities.
7. Fashions and the textile factories.
8. The scarcity of laborers on farms.
9. The agitation over employers' liability acts.
10. The regulating of weights and measures.
11. The reaction of factors of environment on an organism.
12. Differentiation and division of labor.
13. Near-sightedness.
14. Habits and modifications of blind fish found in caves.
15. The adaptation of teeth in a rat or squirrel.
16. The relation of insects to the cultivation of figs in the United States.
17. The temperatures of the bottom waters of the Mediterranean and the adjacent Atlantic.
18. The climate of England as affected by certain conditions.
19. What would follow an inclination of the earth's axis of 45° .
20. The relation of the mosquito to disease.
21. The introduction of dry farming in Kansas.

THE SENTENCE

The paragraph expresses the central idea, or, in a longer treatment of a subject, some phase of it. The paragraph

is, in turn, made up of sentences, each of which, bearing on the same subject or some phase of it, has a lesser, subordinate, thought. "A sentence is the expression of a complete thought." It must, then, have a subject, and must predicate something of that subject. Since there are many possible modifications of any idea, these may be included by means of clauses subordinate to the principal one, by phrases, or by words which serve in place of groups of words. What is known as "style" depends largely on the structure of sentences. **Unity, coherence, emphasis, concord, variety, and harmony** must all be considered.

A. Rules for securing unity in the sentence:

1. Avoid changing the point of view or the subject.
2. Avoid a loose arrangement of relative clauses, especially a relative clause within a relative clause, or *and which* if there is no coördinate relative clause.
3. Do not crowd into the same sentence ideas which have no close connection.
4. Avoid the too frequent use of *and* by subordinating the less important phases of the thought to be expressed.
5. Do not add a supplementary clause when the thought is complete.
6. Do not insert needless parenthetical expressions.

B. Rules for securing coherence, or clearness, in the sentence.

1. Unless there is good reason for not doing so, follow the natural English order: subject, verb, modifiers.
2. Place all words, phrases, and clauses as near as possible to the words they modify.
3. Place every pronoun so that its antecedent cannot be mistaken.
4. Avoid a careless use of participial phrases, such as the "dangling participle."
5. Avoid throwing a word, phrase, or clause so loosely

into a sentence that it might modify either the preceding or the following part.

C. Rules for securing emphasis in the sentence:

1. Avoid a weak or commonplace beginning, such as, *now, well, because*.
2. Avoid a weak or commonplace ending, such as a preposition.
3. Whenever possible, arrange the parts so as to form a climax.
4. Use parallel structure, several clauses of the same kind in succession, if you can do it without monotony.
5. Use connective words very carefully.
6. Invert the natural order occasionally to draw attention to the point of an adverbial clause, or to throw the most important part to the end.
7. Leave out all words which do not add to the meaning.
 - a. Tautology consists in repeating the thought.
It rained all day, from six in the morning till night.
 - b. Redundancy is the use of words not necessary to the sense.
Collect together all the fragments.
 - c. Verbosity consists in using many words when few are needed to express the meaning.

D. Rules for securing concord in sentences:

1. A verb should agree with its subject.
 - a. The verb with a collective noun should be singular or plural, according as the group, or the individuals in it, are prominent.
 - b. If there are two subjects of different persons or numbers, the verb agrees with the more prominent, or, if there is no emphasis, with the nearer.
 - c. A verb used in the predicate of two or more subjects, denoting different things, should be plural.

2. The correct verb form should be used.

a. Distinguish between

lie, lay, lain	lay, laid, laid.
sit, sat, sat	set, set, set.
rise, rose, risen	raise, raised, raise.

b. Use the right form for the past tense and past participle.

I begin,	I began,	I have begun.
I come,	I came,	I have come.
I eat,	I ate,	I have eaten.
I do,	I did,	I have done.
I drink,	I drank,	I have drunk.
I give,	I gave,	I have given.
I go,	I went,	I have gone.
It rings,	It rang,	It has rung.
I run,	I ran,	I have run.
I see,	I saw,	I have seen.
I write,	I wrote,	I have written.
It grows,	It grew,	It has grown.

c. Observe the sequence of tenses:

In a complex sentence each verb takes the tense of the time that it expresses; thus a general truth is expressed in the present.

The tense of the verb in the subordinate clause, or the tense of an infinitive, should not conflict with that of the main verb.

RIGHT.

WRONG.

I intended to go.

I intended to have gone.

The disaster was to be expected. The disaster was to have been expected.

I knew that Tom went yesterday. I knew that Tom has gone yesterday.

RIGHT.

WRONG.

They told Macbeth he would be king.	They tell Macbeth he would be king.
I thought I would go.	I thought I would have gone.
I hope he will see it.	I hope he would see it.
Your mother told you that fire is dangerous.	Your mother told you that fire was dangerous.
Your sister was surprised when you told her the news.	Your sister would be surprised when you told her the news.
She has been ill two months.	She is ill two months now.
If Mary had heard the call, she would have answered.	If Mary would have heard the call, she would have answered.

d. Use the indicative and subjunctive forms, and auxiliary verbs carefully.

The indicative denotes a fact.

The subjunctive denotes:

A wish.

O! That I were in the country! If only I might go!

Condition contrary to fact.

If the air were clearer, we could see farther.

A supposition or conclusion, regarded as untrue or unlikely.

Were the waves mountain-high, the ship would ride them safely.

A purpose.

Hurry, lest you be late.

A conceded supposition.

I am determined to win, hard though it be.

The subjunctive is falling into disuse in ordinary speech.

e. Distinguish between *shall* and *will*, and between *should* and *would*.

Shall denotes: Simple future, 1st person.

I shall go.

Promise, 2nd person.

You shall have it.

Command, 2nd person.

You shall obey.

Determination, 2nd and 3rd persons.

It shall be done.

Will denotes: Determination, 1st person.

I will have it.

Promise, consent, refusal. 1st person.

I will buy it for you.

Simple future, 2nd and 3rd persons.

You will go.

Should denotes: Future, 1st person.

I should be glad to go.

Future time in subordinate clauses and indirect discourse.

He believed that he should win.

A meaning equivalent to the subjective.

If you should go, do the errand.

Duty, obligation.

He should do as he is told.

Would denotes: Determination.

He would go, in spite of us.

Customary action.

They would walk on fair days.

Wish.

Would that it were true!

Promise or determination, in indirect discourse.

She said she would go.

Conclusion in conditional sentences, and result in subordinate clauses.

She is so tall that you would think her older.

In interrogative sentences *shall* or *will* may be used in the second or third persons, according to

the answer expected, but *shall* must be used in the first person.

To denote the simple future use *shall* in the first person, *will* in second and third.

In a subordinate clause introduced by *that* use the same auxiliary as though it were an independent sentence.

In other subordinate clauses *shall* in all persons denotes simple futurity, *will* in all persons implies exercise of will.

3. Be careful to use the right case.

- a. The objective case should be used as the object of a verb, after prepositions, as the subject of an infinitive, and as objective complement.
- b. The nominative should be used as the subject of a verb, and as the subjective (or attribute) complement of incomplete intransitive verbs, such as *be*, *become*, *seem*, and equivalent verbs.

I don't know *whom* you saw. Jessie, *whom* you know to be taller than *I*, was between you and *me*. It may have been *she*.

4. Use pronouns correctly.

- a. Distinguish clearly the use of *who*, *which*, and *that*.

Who is used only of persons, or animals and things personified.

Which is used of animals and things.

That may be used of either persons or things. Sometimes it is used to vary the sound, or when both are included. In most instances it is preferable for introducing restrictive clauses.

- b. Do not confuse pronouns in number and person:

RIGHT.

Everybody thinks his ideas are the best.

As one approaches the entrance, he can see the fine statue.

WRONG.

Everybody thinks their ideas are the best.

When one approaches the entrance, you can see the fine statue.

5. Do not confuse adjectives and adverbs.

RIGHT.

He felt bad.

He went slowly.

Most of the people were on the way home.

WRONG.

He felt badly.

He went slow.

Mostly all the people were on the way home.

6. Do not confuse or misuse the comparative and superlative.

RIGHT.

It is an extreme case.

That is the better of the two.

He is taller than any of his brothers.

She was brighter than any other girl in school.

It was harder to study her lesson than it was to skate.

WRONG.

It is the most extreme case.

(Double superlative.)

That is the best of the two.

He is the tallest of his brothers.

She was brighter than any girl in school.

Her lesson was harder than skating.

(Trying to compare what cannot be compared.)

7. Use the right preposition.

a. Insert another preposition if necessary, or rearrange the sentence.

RIGHT.

It is as good as, or better than, this.

It is at least as good as this.

WRONG.

b. Choose the preposition that has become idiomatic with a certain word: *Different from*, not *than*; *agree with* or *to* according to meaning; *comply with*; *taste of* or *for*, according to meaning; *stay*

at, not *to*; lives *at* or *in*, as meant; fell *into*; marched *in* the ranks; went *into* the city; disappointed *in* or *because of*. Dependent *on*; conform *to*; between *two*, but *among* many; resemblance *to*; fear *of*, considerate *of*, compatible *with*.

c. Do not use unnecessary prepositions.

RIGHT.

He was between the pillars.	He was in between the pillars.
The dog was behind the chair.	The dog was in behind the chair.
She followed her sister.	She followed after her sister.
They mingled with the people.	They mixed in with the people.
John met his friend at the corner.	John met with his friend at the corner.
She rose from her chair.	She rose up out of her chair.
They selected the garments they wanted.	They selected out the garments.
I wondered whence the sound came.	I wondered from whence the sound came.
She accepted the gift.	She accepted of the gift.

WRONG.

d. Do not use prepositions for verb forms.

RIGHT.

She could have gone.	She could of gone.
It must have happened last week.	It must of happened last week.
The rumor seems to have been true.	The rumor seems to of been true.

WRONG.

E. Rules for securing euphony or harmony in sentences.

1. Avoid disagreeable combinations of sounds, or words hard to pronounce distinctly, such as *ruggedest*, *lovedst*, *indubitably*.
2. Avoid the frequent repetition of sounds: I said that that was what I wanted; it was in interesting form.

3. Select smooth, harmonious words, especially those with liquid and vowel sounds.
4. Try to use words that suggest the sense, or at least seem suited to it. *Sinuous, jagged, hiss, fluent, whiz, and titter* are such words.
5. Arrange the words so that the sentence has rhythm, though not so regular as to suggest scansion and cadence.

F. Rules for securing variety in sentences.

1. Vary the length of sentences.
2. Use sentences of different grammatical and rhetorical form.
 - a. Use the interrogative and exclamatory forms occasionally, but not in such a way as to suggest affectation, or so frequently as to make either seem a characteristic of your style. Either form soon becomes monotonous.
 - b. Use most the periodic sentence, which holds the main thought in suspense till the close.

After everything has been admitted as to the responsibility either of society in general or of one's parents, it is upon one's own self, and nowhere else, that the real responsibility for right living must rest.

- c. Sometimes the loose sentence may be used. This is so constructed that it may be brought to a close in two or more places, and yet make complete sense.

The boy opened the door, saw the engine going down the street, rushed after it, and reached the fire in a few moments.

- d. Use the balanced sentence. This is made up of two members that are similar in form, but contrasted in meaning.

To err is human; to forgive, divine.

3. Vary the order of the elements of sentences.
4. Avoid frequent repetition of words or expressions.

G. Rules governing the use of figures of speech.

The modern tendency in public speaking is toward simplicity and conciseness. Therefore, the old style of oratory often seems to us not only florid and ornate, but affected and bombastic. Perhaps we have gone too far to the other extreme. The use of figurative language often aids greatly. Not only does it add the element of the poetic, but it makes the image more vivid, the idea more clear. Then, too, it increases emphasis by giving the hearer some comparison that he remembers long after the bare statement or argument has faded from his mind. A figure of speech is an expression not literal, but suggestive. The speaker says one thing and means another.

Figures of speech may be divided into classes.

1. Those which aid clearness through comparison or contrast.**a. Likeness.****1. Personification.**

The sky was sullen. The earth heard.

2. Metaphor.

A cloud of trouble came upon him. (Likeness implied.)

3. Simile.

Trouble came upon him as a cloud.

b. Contrast.**1. Antithesis, a sharp contrast.**

War injures, by destroying resources; peace benefits, by building up prosperity.

2. Irony—meaning the opposite of what is said.

Certainly Miss Herne, who last week paid only eight hundred dollars for three simple dresses, is qualified to prove that a working-girl can dress well for eight dollars a month.

3. Litotes—denying the opposite.

These are not made to last but a day.

(4) Epigram—the terse, pithy expression of truths, so worded that there is apparent contradiction.

“A little learning is a dangerous thing.”

2. Those that suggest, through association of ideas, the real meaning.

a. Hyperbole, or exaggeration.

A nation mourned his loss.

b. Metonymy, or change of name.

We all read Dickens. (Name of author for his works.) The kettle boils. (Container for thing contained.) The bench and the pulpit protested. (Sign for thing signified.) Capital and labor are in conflict. (Abstraction for concrete.)

c. Allusion—to the Bible, to mythology, to history, to science.

It was a reign of terror in financial circles.

The Jasons of modern times often find their quest vain.

d. Interrogation—the asking of questions to which no answer is expected.

Great care must be taken in the use of figures lest they weaken instead of strengthen. It is not wise to prolong a figure too far lest the hearer be put under too great a strain. Trite figures are useless. Comparison with unfamiliar things only puzzles. Perhaps one of the most frequent mistakes is the mixing of figures.

Exercise IX.

Form a sentence of about ten words. Express the same idea in as many ways as possible.

Form a simple sentence. Add as much as you can without violating unity or good sentence structure.

Put the following together in as many ways as possible:

1. Godfrey Cass had a horse. It was a good horse. It was called Wildfire. He also had a brother. That brother was called

Dunstan. He was mean and spiteful. Dunstan had borrowed some money of Godfrey. This belonged to their father. Godfrey needed it to pay back. He was forced to sell Wildfire. He disliked doing so.

2. Goldsmith was a laughing-stock. He was simple and credulous. He was good-natured and lovable. He could talk entertainingly. He was welcomed everywhere. He had many friends. They all loved him.
3. I walked along the street one day. I was in the shopping district. It was a cold day. It was late in December. I saw a small boy. He was ragged and dirty. He was looking in a shop window. It was full of sleds and skates.

Exercise X.

Correct the following sentences, taken from pupils' speech and writing, and give reason for each change. Some sentences contain several faults.

1. In that store around the corner there stood a pretty sewing outfit. Quite wonderful it seemed to Nana. And when she thought of the many things she could make and she could help Mama if she only had it, she determined to procure it at any cost. It was quite cheap and Nana thought of ways and means to earn money for it.
2. He saw that unless relief would come soon, he must give up his watch.
3. She obtained the position, and, in a short time, her mistress became attached to her, and often remarked the resemblance between her and her little daughter whom she had supposed was lost at sea.
4. Waiting for a car at Broadway, it was quite some time before one came and then it went past us without stopping.
5. So, without any more decision, he ran to his room, calling the rest of us out of bed and getting his rifle was prepared for the worst.
6. The woman only was trained on household arts.
7. If he didn't bring up Eppie, people wouldn't have pitied him.
8. Every one of his ambitions were founded on her.

9. We saw, standing in the doorway, a boy about ten years old. digging his fists in his eyes, who was crying loudly.
10. Oh, we have him a long time, that lazy fellow.
11. When we use the basis of association of ideas, you use things in their regular order.
12. As one must some day try their skill in one of the industrial arts, and as dressmaking is a very useful one, I thought of making a shirtwaist.
13. History is both very beneficial as a source of education and knowledge, for in the time of our forefathers there were no histories at all.
14. His fathers would have turned him off had he told him of his marriage and Nancy would have nothing to do with him had he told her.
15. This girl, Lydia Randon, was fifteen years of age, about five feet and possessed a very sweet disposition which fact made her popular everywhere.
16. So it is easy to be seen that Lydia did not spend all her time with her books.
17. She had always regarded it as something that, though she would like to get it very much, she should soon get over the disappointment if she did not get it.
18. But he had no such intention in view.
19. Tearing off his waist and jacket, holding them over the flame, he immediately caught the blaze, with the burning fragments waving in the air, he mounted the rock and cried "stop! stop! danger!"
20. But no, his heroism was not done in vain.
21. The two stole stealthily down the stairs.
22. Jack rode at full speed and after a long time, and after hard work on the part of Jack, he caught up to the engine in which poor little Grace was.
23. But now her grief must begin again for they had arrived at the palace of the prince, the story-teller then left her and was soon to meet her future husband.
24. When I set out for home, nothing seemed apparently amiss with Wotan, who would now and then stop to play in the road.

25. I quick took to my heels, but he was at me, attempting to attack me.

26. Meanwhile Wotan had become exhausted and went in back of the house.

27. The animal had succumbed from a fit brought on by excessive heat.

28. The work was too hard for the weavers, so again they went to look for ways and means to make the weaving easier.

29. And there was a man named Arkwright, he was himself a weaver, and he said the weaving was too hard.

30. There was a man named ———, he was very timid, and afraid of people, and he used to work at night to improve the machinery.

31. The opium finally got the best of Molly.

32. A huge cathedral was erected there in the twelfth century and it is remarkable for its wonderful sculpture.

33. I think that if he would have told Nancy, she would have had too much pride to marry him.

34. I saw him walking along the street on my way to school.

35. Antony is speaking over Cæsar's body after Brutus had delivered his oration.

36. He thinks Brutus is the most brave and finest Roman of them all.

37. The banks are low and numerous trees and bushes are growing there.

38. The darkness startled us, 'he corn was tall and dense.

39. I suppose it wanted to be shown how anxious Godfrey was to learn whether his wife died or whether she was still living.

40. Nobody knew about this marriage except Dunstan, and he always bribed him not to tell.

41. And then Godfrey, in the chapter before, we are told how anxious he was to be together with Nancy.

42. Perhaps Nancy would have forgiven Godfrey if he would have told her of his marriage.

43. When ushered into her presence, she was soon followed by a confidant.

44. When he saw her he fell in love with her, and all through the trial he was on her side and she won.

45. He afterward called on her and her maid talked in a sarcastic manner and he never went there again.

46. She was much admired by all the men but did not even glance at them but when Sir Roger came in he thought she looked at him and fell in love with her.

47. He was in love with a certain widow, who was very highly educated and all the men were in love of her.

48. Others, who have done good daily work, but because they become nervous and excited forget all they ever knew and fail in the examination.

49. Will Wimble was a very peculiar man, he was the younger son of a noble. He had no trade, he had a taste for trading but he did not do it because a baronet's son was supposed to learn either to be a physician, a lawyer or a clergy and as he had no taste for it, he knew nothing.

50. Her name was Moll White, and Addison was told that Moll White was a witch.

51. Who did you go to the party with? I wished I could have gone. Perhaps I will get to go to the next one.

52. Between you and I, I think she was very foolish to stay, so soaking wet. She might of gone home along of me.

53. Walking north on Broadway, electric signs were able to be seen. . . . As we were going in the same direction, we did not have to wait, which did not often happen.

Exercise XI.

Study the following sentences taken from public speeches. If they are good, why? Is there any art in arrangement, method of statement, etc.? Select those containing figures of speech. Try to improve the sentences.

1. Twenty-four years ago he placed upon the statute books of his state a law guarding the secrets of the ballot.

2. I go on the ground that this Constitution was made by the states; that it is a federal union of the states, in which the several states still retain their sovereignty.

3. Does any man in his senses believe that this beautiful structure—this harmonious aggregate of states, produced by the joint consent of all—can be preserved by force?

4. Disguise it as you may, the controversy is one between power and liberty; and I tell the gentlemen who are opposed to me that, strong as may be the love of power on their side, the love of liberty is still stronger on ours.

5. Just as his earlier career at home was coincident with the rapid internal development of the Dominion, so his later career as Canadian plenipotentiary to the mother country coincided with the strengthening of Imperial sentiment which has been so notable a phenomenon of recent Canadian growth.

6. Indeed, eloquence, learning, talents, genius, courage, all combined do not make a leader.

7. That relief from past conditions was needed cannot be denied.

8. The iron hand alone is powerless against an awakened and insistent nation; the great, strong, human hand alone can control and bring order out of disorder, bring harmony and good feeling out of bitterness and danger.

9. With everything to make us happy and everything to make us confident of the future, with everything to inspire us with trust in our government, ourselves, and our future, and with everything to make us contented and happy, we are restless, uneasy, discontented, unhappy, suspicious, and intolerant. We are engaged in a saturnalia of vituperation. Justice and fair dealing are thrown to the winds. Appeals to passion and prejudice displace reason and logic.

10. We speak not only for a party, but for a nation, for mankind and for history.

11. Nominate him, and the platform, instead of being so much party declaration, will become the creed of a waiting people.

12. While industry is suspended, while the plough lies in the furrow, while the Exchange is silent, while no smoke arises from the factory, a process is going on quite as important to the wealth of nations as any process which is performed on more busy days.

13. In our colonies the state does much for the support of religion; but in no colony, I believe, do we give exclusive support to the religion of the minority.

14. We are against crooked business, big or little; we are in favor of honest business, big or little.

15. Young and old, rich and poor, grave and gay, ceased for a moment their pursuit of pleasure, their quest of wealth, their contemplation of sorrow, to bow their heads in memory of the martyred President.

16. He does not cling to a thing simply because it is hoary with age. Neither will he embrace one because it is new.

17. Sixteen years this partnership has levied tribute under the forms of law. It has taxed the crust upon the lips of hunger. It has filched from the pockets of poverty.

18. Not in Washington nor in the customs, but with ourselves, is the best protection found.

19. Stability in foreign markets depends largely on ability in home ones.

20. The place for narrow men is in ruts; for dead men, in graves.

21. A Bourbon superintendent who can't learn is bad but no worse than a Bourbon employer who won't learn.

22. He can counsel without haughtiness and reprove without scorn. He fears no man's censure, but inspires every man's respect.

23. Further, this is no building up of a legal ecclesiasticism, this is no piling up of a great supreme court which will wrap its robes around itself and look with great amazement upon the great mass of the Church that will appeal to it for help. It is nothing of the kind. The men who are in the business of formulating this are not legalistic men, they are not ecclesiastical legalists, they are not dreamers of ecclesiastical empires, but they are as spiritual men as anybody in this building. They are men who are in the prayer meeting, they are men who are in the slums, they are men who can step out of their office and kneel down with the penitent on the curb-stone, or behind the door of the big church, or in the slimy slums of the big cities and lead men to God.

24. What manner of man, then, shall this convention raise up to be its standard bearer? He should have had political training and experience, for these are almost as essential qualifications in a nominee for the Presidency as are the clinic and classroom for

the physician and surgeon. Without any pretentious parade of the virtue, he should be progressively conservative and conservatively progressive. He must be well balanced, thoughtful, deliberative, and yet, in ability to inspire enthusiasm among his fellows, be a natural leader of men.

25. Countless are the voices that have enriched our air of earth, but they have grown faint with the centuries.

26. The sweetest harmonies come from the lives that have had the most tuning.

27. Politics will not interfere with business when politics ceases to be business.

28. Man, the machine of machines, compared with which all the contrivances of the Watts and the Arkwrights are worthless, is repairing and winding up, so that he returns to his labors on the Monday with clearer intellect, with livelier spirit, with renewed corporal vigor.

29. Fighters in the world's arena must lay aside every weight and the habits of thought and traditions that so easily beset them, and with keen self-training address themselves to the contest.

30. The newspaper is manufactured out of the subtlest, most volatile, most elusive raw material in the world—the truth.

31. The *Nun's Priest's Tale* shows Chaucerian wit at its best, as brilliant and delicate as the flash of a humming bird.

32. In the chemistry of the English language, Latin is the chief element.

33. Use the short, sharp, crisp Anglo-Saxon words, that have the snap and sparkle and energy of electricity.

34. The copyreader must be able to apply sandpaper to the bodily excrescences, but not to the soul of the narrative.

35. Don't use slang unless you have the keen apprehension to select from the slang of to-day what will be the idiom of to-morrow.

36. Dr. Carrel has caused mankind to take one step farther on the long road of the Holy Grail of knowledge.

37. He is a knight worthy to sit at King Arthur's Round Table. There is no man, I believe, in this great assembly, that could dust his sword or unhorse him in this great battle.

38. We shall, then, enter the holy place of moral obligation by passing through the outer court of physical obligation.

39. Whatever talents may be, if the man create not, the pure efflux of the deity is not his; cinders and smoke there may be, but not yet flame.

40. Great Britain and Spain hold the keys of the Mediterranean.

41. It is to be regretted that the prose writings of Milton should be so little read. . . . They are a perfect field of cloth of gold. The style is stiff with gorgeous embroidery.

42. We wish that in those days of disaster, which, as they come on all nations, must be expected to come on us also, desponding patriotism may turn its eyes hitherward, and be assured that the foundations of our national power still stand strong.

43. Our brethren are already in the field. Why stand we here idle? What is it that the gentlemen wish? What would they have? Is life so dear, is peace so sweet, as to be purchased at the price of slavery? Forbid it, almighty God. I know not what course others may take, but as for me, give me liberty, or give me death.

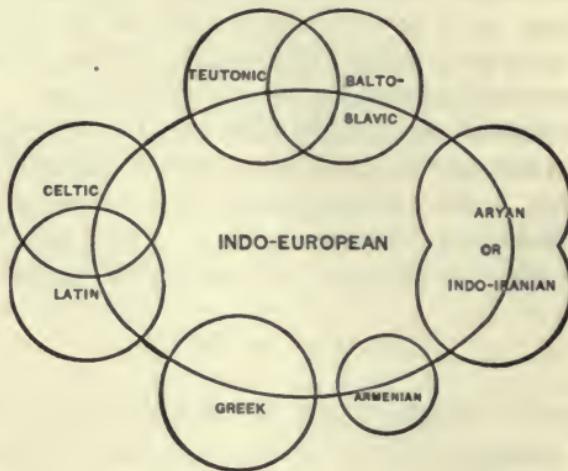
THE USE OF WORDS.

You are all familiar with the Biblical story of the confusion of tongues following the building of the tower of Babel. Modern scholarship has shown that there may have been some time when only one language existed. Comparison of various languages shows that there is some relation. The word meaning the same as our word *father* may illustrate this: Sanskrit, *pitar*; Greek, *πατήρ*; Latin, *pater*; Gothic, *fadar*; Old French, *pedre*; French, *père*; Old Irish, *athir*; Italian and Spanish, *padre*; Provençal, *paire*; German, *Vater*; Icelandic, *faðir*.

The numerals, all ten, may be traced in much the same way: Sanskrit, *trayas*; Greek, *τρεῖς*; Gothic, *þreis*; Latin, *tres*; French, *trois*; Danish and Swedish, *tre*; English, *three*; German, *drei*.

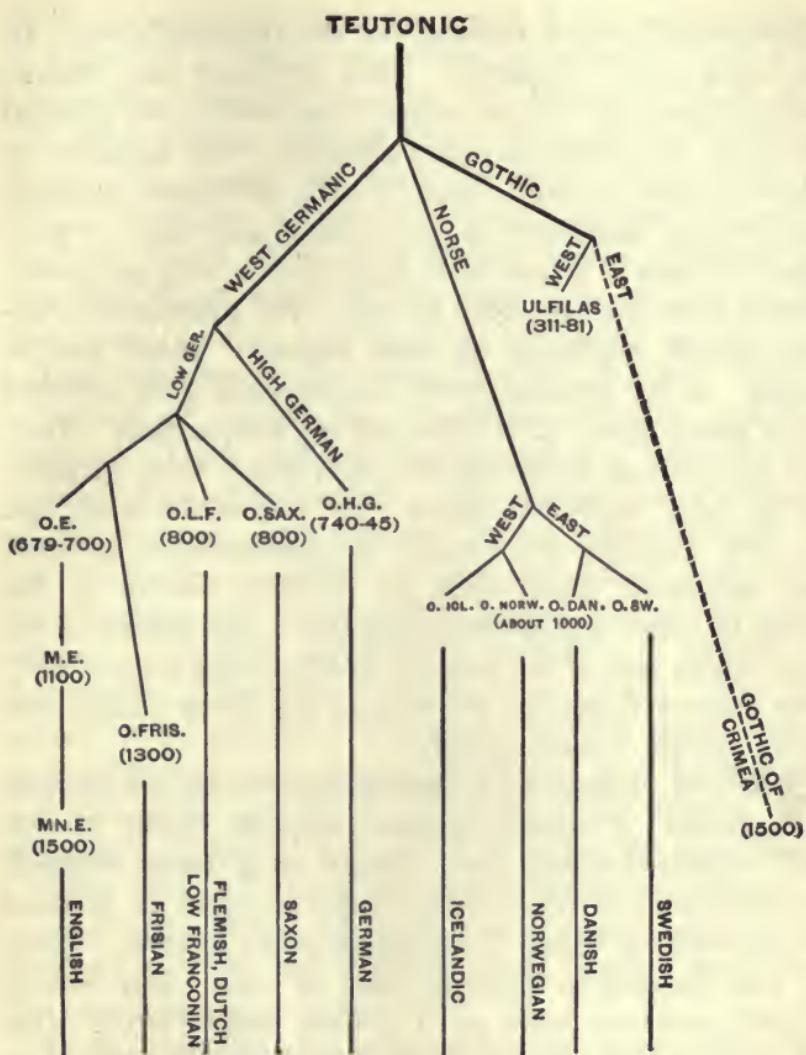
More than a hundred roots of Sanskrit, a very old language of the Hindoos, have been found by Professor August Fick to be represented by common words in many European languages, especially English.

Various theories have been brought forth to show how language became differentiated. Twenty-five hundred years before Christ, the differences must have been greater than those now between French and Spanish or Italian.



Therefore, the period of common speech must have been many thousands of years before. Some think various races were of common descent. Others believe that wandering tribes may have mutually adapted their speech. Some think conquest, or commercial relations, might account for likenesses. Certainly, all these factors may have affected our language.

There are at least a hundred families of languages, of which four have been carefully studied, among them the Semitic, to which Arabic and Hebrew belong, and the Indo-European, to which the various European languages be-



long. This last has eight branches, of which Teutonic is one. Teutonic is divided into three parts, each subdivided. If you look at the diagrams,* you will see how English is related to the others.

* From *History of the English language*, O. F. Emerson. The Macmillan Company.

There were several reasons for the differentiation. In early days tribes wandered. They not only lost contact with old associates, but met others from whom they learned new words and different pronunciations. The members of a clan or tribe, a large family group, developed mannerisms, through imitation of each other and lack of good models, to such a degree that their speech was noticeably different from that of other groups. The climate also affected speech, especially in some regions. There was no printing. A few persons, after written signs were invented in each group, spent their time copying manuscripts. They made mistakes or deliberate changes, which were perpetuated by later copyists. Since very few could read, and since few followed strict rules of pronunciation or even spoke distinctly, there were no effective checks to the leveling of vowel sounds and inflections. The speech of the higher classes and of the dwellers in cities kept more closely to the literary standard, but that of the lower classes and country people varied greatly.

There were changes of pronunciation due to the shifting of the accent. *Compúto* became *cómputo*, finally *compt*. Final consonants and even middle ones were dropped. *Corpus* became *corpo*. Vowels were changed or dropped after slurring for years. *Convento* became *convent*. *Clericum* was changed to *clercum*, then to *clerc*. Our British brothers pronounce *clerk* as if it were spelled *clark*. Our word *day* has had, among others, the forms *dah*, *dags*, *dæg*, *tag*.

After much investigation, the students of language learned that the changes which took place followed certain general laws. It was found that, under certain conditions, the vowels of one group of languages changed to others, as *a* to *o*, or that the quantity changed. Two great consonant

shiftings were discovered, by which *b* became *p*, *p* became *f*, *d* became *t*, and so on. Thus the sounds changed from the earlier Indo-European to the Teutonic. Then, in the Old High German period, there was a second shifting of consonants, though the West Germanic, from which English is descended, did not have this. Perhaps you will see that the Latin *decem*, the Gothic *taihun*, German *zehn*, and English *ten* are really the same. So, too, we can show that *cors (cordis)*, *hairto, herz*, and *heart* are the same.

But there were also great changes in form. The full inflection of verbs was gradually lessened, sometimes dropped. Case endings disappeared, so that the forms showed often no distinction. The conjugation or declension of any common verb or noun can be traced through various languages, to illustrate how one letter after another was dropped, till such simple forms as those of modern French or English were left. Prefixes and suffixes were frequently added, thus forming new words. New compounds were formed. You know, if you study German, how many there are in that language. You know that, in our own, such a word as *saleswoman* was formed in just this way. *Underbid* is a verb illustrating the same method.

Some kinds of words, such as prepositions, adverbs, and conjunctions, were used more, and pronouns were not only used where they had formerly been thought unnecessary, but developed new forms.

These great changes went on through ages, when history was not yet written of these things. Scholars have had to reconstruct the probable forms according to the laws formulated from known forms. But our mother tongue, gradually forming late in the world's history, has gone through not only such changes as have been mentioned, but other modifications as well. It is a hybrid, not only show-

ing the traces of ordinary use by the unlettered people, but adopting and modifying words from other languages.

In prehistoric times, the people who dwelt in the British Isles spoke forms of Celtic. Some spoke Cymric or what is now known as Welsh. This survived in some localities. Others spoke Cornish, a form that died out only about a century ago. The Breton language was carried over to the north of France, and is still used in Brittany. These were all divisions of the Britannic, but there was another used in the islands, that branch of Celtic called Gaelic, to which belong Irish, Scottish, and Manx. In these exist writings of the eighth and later centuries. You may have heard of the recent attempts to revive Gaelic. It is still spoken in some of the interior districts of Scotland and Ireland. Very few of the words from these Celtic languages found a permanent place in English, but some are still common: *brat, mattock, clan, glen, brogue, bog, shamrock, cairn, crag, slogan, and whiskey*.

As you know, the Romans occupied Britain for several centuries, early in the Christian era. But they seem not to have left much effect on the language. Some scholars think that *chalk, kettle, mint, and crisp* were modifications of Latin words, through Old English.

In 449 A. D. that invasion took place which was to determine the language of Britain for all time, probably, the coming of the Jutes to Kent. Later came the Saxons and, to the North, the Angles. These tribes spoke dialects of Low German, a division of the West Germanic branch of Teutonic. In the North there were two dialects among the Angles. Here in Northumbria poets sang, and their words were written down. One man, Bede, wrote a church history. By the eighth century, there was something to act as a preservative force. After 871, the West Saxon dialect

became as a result of conquest the standard. Then under the influence of Alfred considerable prose was written, and the poetry of the North reproduced in the West Saxon dialect.

This literary language was highly developed, or, perhaps we should say, it had not yet been simplified. The nouns had five cases, comprising six different declensional forms, for both numbers, sometimes more. Adjectives were fully declined, for all cases, in masculine, feminine and neuter. *God*, or *good*, had ten forms. Pronouns were declined in singular, dual, and plural, some cases having three forms for the same number and gender. Verbs were conjugated as weak in three classes, and as strong, with six classes, some with subdivisions. Those of you who have difficulty in remembering principal parts of German verbs may be glad you do not have Old English with which to struggle. Not only the indicative and imperative moods, but the optative as well, had forms.

Perhaps you would like to compare the following translation of part of Chapter IV of the gospel of St. Mark with that of the King James or the Revised Version.

And eft he ongan hi aet thære sæ lærān. And him wæs mycel menegu to gegaderod, swa thæt he on scip eode, and on thære sæ wæs; and eall seo menegu ymbe tha sæ wæron on lande. And he fela on bigspellum lærde, and him to qwæth on his lare, Gehyrath; Ut eode se sædere his sæd to sawenne. And tha he seow, sum feoll with thone weg, and fugelas comon and hit fræton. Sum feoll ofer stanscyligean, thar hit næfde mycele eorthan and sona up eode, and for tham hit næfde eorthan thicnesse, tha hit up eode, seo sunne hit forswælde, and hit forscranc, for tham hit wyrtruman næfde. And sum feoll on thornas; tha stigon tha thornas and forthrysmodon pæt, and hit wæstm ne bær. And sum feoll on god land, and hit sealde uppstigendne and wexendne wæstm; and an brohte thritigfealdne, sum syxtigfealdne, sum hundfealdne. And he cwæth, Gehyre se the earan hæbbe to gehyranne.

Though there have been many additions, we still use a large proportion of Anglo-Saxon words. Most of those in every-day speech relating to common objects, to home life, to the natural feelings, and to farming, are of such origin. Demonstrative adjectives, such as *this* and *that*, adjectives irregularly compared, nouns forming plurals by change of vowel, verbs having irregular or strong conjugation, auxiliary and defective verbs, prepositions and conjunctions, and many common words of one or even two syllables, are English of pure descent.

The Latin influence entered again when the English were Christianized. The people began using, with modifications, the words that now appear as *altar*, *bishop*, *candle*, *church*, *creed*, *devil*, *monk*, *nun*, *organ*, *priest*, *shrine*, *temple*.

From the eighth century the Danes made attempts to gain a foothold in England, and, in 1016, finally placed a king on the throne. Though the Danes in general adopted the speech of the English, by the natural association of the two races, both Teutonic, many words were added to English, and others were changed in form or meaning. Danish had developed from Norse, just as English had grown out of West Germanic. Both were descendants of the Teutonic branch. Norse influence is shown in the pronouns *they*, *their* (Old English *hie*, *hi*, *hiera*, etc.) and in *father* (Old English *fæder*). *Haven*, *husband*, *call*, *thrive*, *fling*, *knife*, *take*, *wrong*, are from the Norse. Probably most words having *sk* as *skin*, *skill*, *bask*, words with hard *g* or *k*, where English words would have a softer sound, as *give*, *get*, *guest* and those with *ai* or *ei*, where English would have had *a* or *æ*, as *bait*, *hail*, *raise*, *sleigh*, *swain*, *their*, *wail*, are of Norse origin, introduced by the Danes.

But a far greater change came after the Normans, who had inhabited the province of Normandy in the northern

part of what is now France, conquered England in 1066. The people of the territory now known as France, Spain, and Portugal had, after the Roman Empire embraced them, quickly adopted, as did the other Celts of Britain, the speech of the conquering nation. Instead, however, of taking the formal, highly inflected Latin which you study, they naturally learned the speech of the common people, known as *Vulgar* or *Low Latin*. This differed from Classical Latin even more than the talk of the ignorant people of secluded districts differs from the language of the schools and the pulpit to-day. As the soldiers and colonists went farther away from Rome, their speech changed just as all speech naturally changes, because of lack of old models, because of new pronunciations, the modifications of people learning a new tongue, imitated by those who introduced it, and because of the change of vowel sounds, the dropping of case and verb endings, and others.

So the various Romance languages grew up, until by the tenth century there were many well-developed branches. Below are a few lines from the great French poem of that period, "Chanson de Roland."

Dist Oliviers: De ço ne sai jo blasme.
Jo ai veđuļ les Sarrazins d'Espaigne:
Covert en sont li val e les montaignes
E le larriz e trestotes les plaines;
Granz sont les oz de cele gent estrange:
Nos i avoms molt petite compaigne."

In different parts of the Gallic country various dialects were spoken. But all had their chief descent from Latin instead of from the Germanic languages.

In the reigns preceding the Norman Conquest there had

been some French influence in England, for English nobles had gone much to France, and Frenchmen had come to England. When the Normans came, they continued to speak their form of French. At the court and in legal cases French was largely used. Scholars taught it in the schools, along with Latin. As the people mingled more and more, English with Norman, as they intermarried, as they traded, each race adopted many words from the other. Those who could, read French romances, of which great numbers were brought to England; and some wrote in French. No wonder there was a confusion of tongues.

We have some words that are part English and part French, as *over-power*, *falsehood*, *courtship*, *life-guard*, *heir-loom*. Among the words early assimilated are *battle*, *castle*, *assault*, *siege*, *banner*, *arms*, *peace*, *tower*, *countess*, *court*, *justice*, *miracle*, *procession*, *treasure*, *treason*. In some instances it was most natural to call the unfamiliar thing by the name previously unfamiliar. Such words as *master*, *servant*, *butler*, *banquet*, *supper*, would of course be repeated among the English who heard them in the houses of the French. You may remember what Wamba said about the change of name when food raised by the Saxons appeared on the tables of the Normans. Some words have two forms, that of the Norman, and that of the Parisian French more common later: *catch*, *chase*; *warden*, *guardian*; *launch*, *lance*; *wage*, *gage*. Though the difference was first one of pronunciation, the meaning has been differentiated also. *Gaol*, which we now spell, *jail*, is an example of words whose meaning is the same still.*

For several centuries, people both wrote and spoke English, French, and Latin; for the scholars and priests, in

* Other examples may be found in History of the English Language, Ch. 8—10, O. F. Emerson.

common with their class in all countries at that time, thought the vernacular vulgar and, therefore, beneath them as a medium of written expression. Some thought it would not last, but that Latin would be the language of learning for all time. So we have ponderous Latin histories, religious, philosophic, and so-called scientific works, along with the English moral directions, poems, and chronicles, and the French romances and lays. Some of the Latin words, too, became members of the common speech.

By the time of Chaucer, in the fourteenth century, Middle English had become very different from Old English, but was not yet fixed in form.

A clerk ther was of Oxenford also,
That un-to logik hadde longe y-go.
As lene was his hors as is a rake,
And he nas nat right fat, I undertake;
But loked holwe, and ther-to soberly.
Ful thredbar was his overest courtepy,
For he had geten him yet no benefice,
Ne was so wordly for to have office.
For him was levele have at his beddes heed
Twenty bokes, clad in blak or reed
Of Aristotle and his philosophye,
Than robes riche, or fithele, or gay sautrye.

When these lines are read with the Chaucerian pronunciation, few of you can understand many words. Yet most of them are found in our language to-day, in modified forms. In English, too, the leveling as well as the assimilating process was going on. But from the time of Chaucer, the language was more stable, especially after various translations of the Bible, and the circulation of Shakspere's plays. The invention of printing, the exten-

sion of education and interest in literature, all tended to the same end. So for three centuries, there have been few changes in form.

But the English vocabulary has constantly increased. The revival of learning in Elizabethan times, the travel of educated people, the exploration of distant lands, the trade with all nations, the immigration of people of foreign races, have all added many words. Science made use of Latin terms, for the sake of uniformity. Many of these came into common use; for all men attained a smattering of the knowledge once held sacred to priests and physicians. Modern inventions, especially during the nineteenth century, demanded new words for new things. Latin and Greek, rich in roots that could be used as bases for many words, were levied upon. The adoption of foreign fashions, as well as of foods and fabrics from all parts of the world, caused the adoption of the foreign names, until we daily use language that is a medley of many tongues. *Algebra, chemistry, cuticle, telephone, automobile, electrician, bazaar, polonaise, menu, coffee*, are but a few examples.

Sometimes a new word, formed from a proper name, or from elements hitherto not joined, springs into sudden use. Slang may become classic in a half-century, if it fills a need.

With such a language, formed from many elements, enriched by many nations, flexible, possessed of many variants, we have a marvelous instrument ready to our use. Yet how poor is the speech of most of us! The average pupil has a very small, weak vocabulary. Because of this, he fails not only to understand what he reads, but to express himself with interest or power. Is it not worth while, then, to learn a few more words, as well as to study the history of some already familiar?

Exercise XII.

With the aid of a good dictionary, such as the Century, or Webster's Unabridged, look up the history and meaning of each of the following words:

Agnostic, alchemy, alcohol, ambuscade, anarchist, arithmetic. Bamboo, bamboozle, banana, bard, baste, bazaar, bicycle, bismuth, bite, boycott, bungalow, buxom.

Cabal, Cæsar, campaign, campus, caucus, chef, chemistry, circus, citron, coffee, copper, cosmopolitan, cozen, cradle, crown.

Desperado, dock, dukedom, duchess, doubt, dubious.

Echo, eke, express, extradition, extricate, exult.

Fancy, fantasy, foreign, fresco, fruit, fumigate, fun, fusion.

Garage, gerrymander, geyser, gingham, gong, good-bye, gospel, gossip, graduation, grill, guillotine, gymnasium, gumption.

Hippodrome, hobby, hobby-horse, hobo, hoodoo, horde, house-boat.

Imperialist, inch, influenza, interloper, item, itinerary.

Jiu-jitsu, jingo, judiciary, jungle, jury, justice, juxtaposition.

Kangaroo, khaki, kimono, kindergarten, kinetoscope, knight, knout, knuckle, Ku Klux.

Laboratory, lady, library, limn, limousine, lobby, lord; loyal.

Macadamize, machine, marigold, mayonnaise, meander, megaphone, minister, mob, moccasin, murderous, museum, muslin.

Nihilist, nitrogenous, nonsense, noodles, novel, November.

Occult, ocular, omnibus, opera, orient, orthodox, Oslerize.

Papa, pathos, phonograph, piazza (compare porch, stoop, verandah), plaza, plum, plume, pongee, pope, protégé, pupil, purple.

Reconnoiter, régime, renegade, restaurant, romance, rural.

Shale, sloyd, stanza, stereotype, succotash, sweet, swoon, syphon.

Tattoo, tawdry, tea, teacher, tin, tory, totem, tungsten, tunic.

Vandalism, vaudeville, vendetta, vengeance, vigilant, vulgar.

Wampum, weird, Whig, whimsical, wife, wisdom, wit, worth.

Yam, yak, yawl, yodel, yokel, yuletide.

Zealot, zebra, zephyr, zinc, Zion, zither, zoölogy, zwieback.

Exercise XIII.

With the aid of an unabridged dictionary, find how the following words are formed from roots or stems, with pre-

fixes and suffixes. [Halsey's *Etymology of Latin and Greek* is a valuable reference book for this exercise.]

Accede, admiration, animate, antivivisection, anarchy, architect, autonomy, bibliophile, biography, coagulate, centenary, chronological, circumference, consensus, confidential, cyclone, diameter, diversion, effulgent, eloquent, emigrant, expansibility, fraternal, fortitude, gratify, gratitude, homicidal, homonym, ignorant, inculcate, indomitable, induction, incite, indicative, intercede, judicial, jurisdiction, library, locomotive, magnanimous, manipulate, manufacture, mediæval, meridian, noxious, omnipotent, persecution, philanthropy, physiology, politics, profundity, propitious, relinquish, reprehensible, repulsive, reference, solstice, spectacular, subterfuge, subtraction, supercilious, synonym, telegraph, telephone, transference, transparency, utilitarian, undeveloped, uneducated, veracious, voracious, vocabulary, voluble, voluntary, vulnerable.

Exercise XIV.

Form five words from the stem of each word above.

Since the English language is so rich, there is no excuse for poverty of vocabulary. Yet, if you notice the speech of people as they converse, you will find that the same words and phrases are used again and again. "Of course," and "don't you know," are only examples of the monotonous repetitions in our talk. The best way to overcome this fault is to hunt for substitutes, whenever a word seems to have become too much a favorite. A school principal was in the habit of using the word "absolutely" whenever he wanted to express the superlative degree. That was because he did not stop to think of a variation, until he found the habit too strong to break. Study of the speeches or writings of great men will help much in finding new words and making them personal property. If a word that comes to mind frequently seems the only one that fits, look up the synonyms in the dictionary. Above all, consulta-

tion of the dictionary for the meaning of unfamiliar words will fix these in the memory, so that they will be ready for use.

This does not mean that hard, long, unusual words should be sought. There is no occasion for emulating the young instructor in a large university, who, when the sound of a lawn-mower outside made hearing difficult, said, "We will suspend operations until the bucolic implement of industry has ceased perambulating beneath the window." Nor, on the other hand, does it mean that we are to choose only words of one syllable, that can be understood by small children. Most audiences consist of people fairly intelligent, though not prigs nor pedants. The best speakers use a variety of long and short words, familiar and striking, of Anglo-Saxon or of Latin origin.

Study the paragraphs on pages 67-69, 74-75, 378-384, or any others the teacher may designate, for the vocabulary. Is there enough variety? Are the words euphonious? Are they simple or labored in effect? Do they make the meaning clear? Could you find better ones?

Since we have such a heritage in the English language, we should guard it zealously. It is in danger, in many ways. In various sections of this country, as in provinces of all countries, there are tendencies to localize the speech, resulting in dialectic forms. This shows most in pronunciation, which we shall consider later. But it also affects the use of words. Southern and western people, as well as New Englanders, can be recognized by peculiar usages. The dialect used by the "Pennsylvania Dutch" is the imperfect English used by their immigrant ancestors. In many sections of the land there is a great population of foreign birth. In the Northwest the Germans and Swedes have settled. In northern New York and New England are many

French-Canadians. In New York City there is such a confusion of tongues that the descendant of the Pilgrim Fathers scarcely recognizes his own, but may well think himself set down in the streets of a foreign city. The effects of this influx of people speaking various languages is shown in the mixture of words from several, such as Plattdeutsch, High German, and English; or French, Swiss German, and English; or Yiddish, Hebrew, German, and English. Not only have foreign words been introduced, but verb and pronominal forms, the use of adverbs such as "already," the use of tenses, the order of words in the sentence, and the idiom, show the influence. Unless strenuous efforts are made in the schools and by individuals, the speech of many cities and of some country districts will, in fifty years, be unrecognizable as English.

Sectional and foreign influences are not, however, the only disintegrating forces. The writers of books, of magazine articles, and especially of newspaper reports, are trying to use startling language, without regard to its purity. An account of a baseball game is unintelligible to one who is not an enthusiast and a regular attendant. The columns of the newspapers are full of words such as *sleuth*, *gunman*, *gangster*, *fan*, *airman*, *plainclothes man*, *bluecoat*, and others not commonly found in classic literature. Some of these words may be valuable additions to the language, but few of them have increased the variety of expression.

After all, the future of English rests with us as individuals. Shall we interlard our conversation with the latest slang, good or bad, or imitate, "for fun," the children of Myra Kelly's tales, who "borrow a penny off her," or "bring the book to teacher in the next room"? Shall we continue to mix the tenses so that our meaning is confused? Shall we carelessly use words without regard to

the real meaning, or clip them in a slovenly manner? Aside from the preservation of our mother tongue, should we not have some care for the habits we form or neglect to form? The people who speak carefully and with precision are the ones who do things the same way. As we talk, so we form personality and character. There is no more reason why we should be slovenly in speech than in dress.

Of course, correct speaking requires some effort on the part of most of us. Fortunate is the boy or girl brought up in a home where he hears only good English. He is not likely to fall into errors if he is careful. Some never hear any but a foreign tongue at home. Others associate only with children whose sentences are as broken as their own. Still others come from homes where ignorance or carelessness has prevailed. To all comes the temptation to imitate the slang of newspapers and street boys.

The best guides are good writers and speakers, those who are careful and are accepted as authority. Most educated people talk fairly well, though far too many are careless of their responsibility. Culture always stands revealed in the speech. If, then, we imitate the best within our reach, much may be gained. But only constant vigilance will win. If there is doubt, a good dictionary will always help. Such books as those by Arlo Bates and R. G. White, on the use of words, may be a considerable aid. An enlarged vocabulary is indispensable, for it is poverty of expression that opens the way for inexact and slangy speech. If we really have a good many words at our command, we need not worry much about finding the right ones.

The science that treats of the selection and right use of words is called **diction**, from the Latin verb *dico*, say. The divisions of it are named **PURITY**, **PROPRIETY** and **PRECISION**.

PURITY of diction consists in the use of such words only as have present national use by the best writers and speakers. A violation of purity is called a *barbarism*, since it is thought that the people really belonging to our nation will not put themselves intentionally outside the pale by failing to meet, so far as possible, our standards. Barbarisms are of several classes:

Misformed words are those that are hybrids, or put together in defiance of accepted custom, as *unpossible*, *singist*, *misfortunate*. Some of these have, however, been long accepted, as *photographer*. Very often such a word is started by someone who does not know the origin of the stem, and others are too careless to inform themselves till the majority of people have taken it up.

Obsolete words are those that were in good use in earlier times, but have been dropped by common consent. Many of these are still retained in poetry, as *kine*, *yclept*.

Newly coined words are those that someone has recently introduced, that may be current in the newspapers and among a few people, but have not yet been generally adopted, and have not been used to any extent in formal writing. In our day, such words are made very frequently, and many are found useful. *Marconigram* seems too long, but a word is needed for that kind of message. A good one must be found. *Aviator* is not likely to be used by the common people. Will *birdman* or *airman* gain favor, or will another be found, better than any of these? Pope gave us a very good rule:

"In words, as fashions, the same rule will hold;
Alike fantastic if too new or old."

Partly because Americans have traveled much, partly because Continental people came here, but more because we have adopted so many articles and usages from Europe,

there has been a tendency to use **foreign words**. Some have become ours because we had no equivalent. But others are unnecessary. Even though we may consent to use *chef*, and possibly *menu*, there is no reason for saying *chef d'œuvre*, when we have the good old word *masterpiece*.

A **colloquialism** is a word used in ordinary conversation by most people, but not admitted to the dignity of a place in formal articles or speeches, as *can't*, *guess* for *think*, *cute*.

Slang has been well characterized by Richard Grant White:

"Slang is a vocabulary of genuine words or unmeaning jargon, used always with an arbitrary and conventional significance, and generally with humorous intent. It is mostly coarse, low and foolish, although in some cases, owing to circumstances of the time, it is pungent and pregnant of meaning."

In some countries of the English-speaking world, the divisions are called provinces. So the words used only in some one section are known as **provincialisms**. The southerner "*reckons*" when he thinks. He also uses the word *like* as a conjunction.

Although **technical words** limited in use to one or two trades or professions are necessary for use among the people of those occupations, they are not always clear to others, and should therefore be avoided. The word *two-throw*, for instance, though commonly used by mechanics, would not be understood by most people.

Exercise XV.

Test the words listed on the next page as to good present use. If they are not good words, why? If they are, how did they become so? Use a good unabridged dictionary, including the supplement if there is one.

Aeronaut, à la mode, ambitiousness, apropos, au fait, beastly, bifocal, bifurcated, biograph, bioscope, biplane, boom, bore, boost, boycott, Bull Moose, Bohemian, camaraderie, chauffeur, cheap, chic, cinch, some class, claque, clerk, clip, clique, colotype, conceitedness, confiction, co-op, coop, cop, cram (study), crank (person), crank up, crook, crush, cut (used of absenting oneself from classes and of refusal to recognize acquaintances), dago, deadhead, depot, dessert, developer, dinky, dope, duck (person), drunk (person), eftsoons, electrocute, electrometer, exam, erstwhile, fad, fan (baseball enthusiast), faux pas, fire up, fluke, flunk, fume, fuss, fresh, freshman, garage, gas, gerrymander, graft, grind (study), grill, guess, gym, Harveyize, hobby, hobo, ilk, intellects, interestingly, it (noun), jar (verb), jolly (adj., verb), joy (adj.), juice (electricity), kid, kidding, killing, land, law, loafer, looker, massage, mixer, modernist, motor, motorman, mugwump, mux, nickel, nifty, nixie, orate, ornery, outing, peeler, peach, phone, phono-plex, phony, pole (verb), protégé, pshaw, queer, quietness, quit, quiz, quondam, quoth, radiator, restaurant, café, hash-house, referendum, register, resignation, rooter, rum, rusty, rut, saleslady, saloon, sawbuck, scab, scamp, shack, skimp, skin, smart, snack, snide, soda, sometime, strike, strike-breaker, suffragette, sure, swell, tasty, taxi, tramp, treat, tripodic, trolley, trust, typewriter, typist, two-step, two-way, unexcusable, unharful, unloyal, unproper, vamoose, via, whilom, wire (verb, noun), wireless, wrinkle, zoo.

PROPRIETY of diction consists in choosing words that properly express the intended meaning. A violation may not always render the meaning vague, though it often does, but it brands the speaker as careless, inexact, or ignorant.

A *solecism* is that form which is a violation of an accepted rule of grammar.

Some people incorrectly use verbs for nouns, as *recommend* for *recommendation*.

Others speak of things as *real good*, meaning *really* or *very good*. A like mistake is the use of *badly* for *bad*, after

the verb *feel*. Both these illustrate the interchanging of adjectives and adverbs.

Verb forms are frequently misused. *Shall* and *will* are confused (see page 87), *come* is used for *came*, or *done* for *did*, or *don't* for *doesn't*. Verbs are invented that never found place in a dictionary, as *enthuse*.

An *impropriety* is the use of a word in a sense likely to be misunderstood, or in a sense not sanctioned by good usage.

Exercise XVI.

Criticise the following:

Run quick, most all, proven, worked up, quite some, different than, being I was there, can I have this book? I feel like I would faint, near all, alright, took sick, burglarize, can't hardly.

Exercise XVII.

Use the following correctly in sentences:

Audience, spectators, crowd, mob; awful; funny; quite; while, during; emigrant, immigrant; believe, think, guess; balance, remainder; affect, effect; accept, except; expect, suppose, presume; learn, teach, study; borrow, lend; perception; likely, liable, apt; rather; kind, sort; lot, quantity, number, sum, amount; lovely, perfectly, sweet, dear; simply, only, just; pertinent, impertinent; beside, besides; in, into; without, unless; horrid, terrible, deadly; great, splendid, gorgeous, grand; may, can; common, mutual; respectfully, respectively; admit, permit; transpire, happen; bring, take, carry; insight, foresight, nearsighted; socialist, sociologist; luxurious, luxuriant; sociably, socially; afflict, inflict; statue, statute, stature; leave, let; elevator, elevated; vocation, avocation; biography, autobiography; healthy, healthful; exceptional, exceptionable.

PRECISION consists in using the exact word which, of several, most nearly expresses the meaning of the writer or speaker. In order to speak with precision, observe the following:

Note the slight differences among **synonyms**—words of similar though not identical meaning. Several words may express the same general idea, but not the specific one you want to convey: *Continual* means at frequent intervals; *continuous*, without a break.

Distinguish between **general** and **specific** terms: *blue, azure; fiction, novel.*

Distinguish between **negative** and **privative** terms: *unbelief, disbelief.*

Distinguish between **active** and **passive** meanings: *force, strength.*

Distinguish between **degrees of intensity**, to avoid over- or understatement: *noise, crash, uproar.*

Avoid **ambiguity**. People were talking about (around) her.

Exercise XVIII.

Use the following correctly in sentences:

Discover, invent; description, narrative, account, recital; opportunity, occasion; occupation, business, profession; tornado, cyclone, storm, blizzard; plant, flower; principal, principle; scholar, pupil, student; quite, rather, somewhat, very; among, between; aged, ancient, antiquated, antique, old, obsolete, venerable; criticise, discuss, consider; exist, live, dwell, reside; fitting, suitable, pertinent, right; weak-minded, narrow-minded, bigoted; impractical, idealistic, unworldly; say, speak, affirm, assert, state, protest; confess, admit, acknowledge; adore, revere, venerate, esteem, admire, regard, respect; like, love; advantage, benefit; kill, murder, assassinate, execute; noble, honest, upright, honorable, good,

righteous; gaze, look, glance, peer; control, govern, rule, boss, command; adhere, cling; tell, advise, counsel, explain, speak; noted, famous, notorious, renowned, celebrated; ceremony, performance, event, occasion; cordial, sincere, friendly, faithful, loyal, true; able, capable, efficient, powerful, brilliant, keen, clever, smart; crisis, climax; kind, gentle, tender, affable, amiable, mild, gracious; sacred, holy, saintly, sanctimonious, religious; religion, church, sect, denomination, faith; belief, faith, creed, doctrine, dogma; stern, severe, rigorous, inexorable, harsh, strict, stringent; angry, mad, indignant, wrathful; brave, bold, daring, fearless, dauntless, reckless; firm, consistent, unswerving, steady, constant, unbending, single-minded, purposeful, determined; little, small, tiny; creature, animal, brute; clothes, clothing; regret, pity, sympathy, compassion; inspire, incite, arouse, excite; mix, mingle; medley, muddle, mixture, composition; usually, generally, commonly, ordinarily; standards, idea, ideal, principle, theory; help, assist, aid, relieve, support, maintain.

We have considered the conditions of good speaking so far as they relate to the mental side of it. We have found that the speaker must have something to say, that he must know how to plan his material so that he can make the hearer grasp it and remember it, that he must be careful in the expression of it by the formal, but necessary, arrangement of paragraphs and sentences, and that he should know how to use the English words that have been formed through centuries to help bring minds into contact. No effort is too great for him who would master the methods found good by those of other times. Nor will the full reward be lacking to him who perseveres in his attempts to gain that elusive, intangible, but increasingly valuable asset, "style." Moreover, that style must be such as shows the improvements made as a result of experience and changing conditions. The present demands a style of its own, suited to the requirements and to the necessities

of the age. It must be simple, concise, but, above all, clear. People of the twentieth century have no time to waste. They must have the essentials, without the frills, yet they have risen above the stage where crude, rough statement will serve. It must show as high a finish as their mechanical products, must serve its purpose fully, yet be of sufficient beauty to attract.

But the speaker must go even farther. He uses more tools than does the writer. We have seen what an advantage he has because of them, but he must know how to use them or he will spoil his work, the product of his brain. So he must learn how to handle his body, which conveys his thought, interprets it, clinches the contact of mind with mind.

CHAPTER IV

ACTUAL SPEAKING

THE USE OF THE BODY

The position of the speaker is important. If the room is large, a platform is undoubtedly an advantage, though many do not care for it ordinarily. It places the speaker in sight of the audience, and gives the voice greater range. Far more necessary is the right choice of relative position. The speaker should always, if possible, face his hearers. He may at first be embarrassed by having so many eyes turned toward him, but he will soon find that this embarrassment is far overbalanced by the inspiration gained from the faces, by the opportunity for gauging the attitude, the understanding, and the responsiveness of the assembly. The story is told of a humorous lecturer who saw one man unsmiling after several stories. He bent his energies to making that man laugh, and made a great success with the entire audience. There is not often any reason, in a quiet room, for a speaker's going among the listeners, so that some are behind him. It is scarcely courteous to those, and deprives him of part of the audience. There is, however, advantage, in many instances, in a position directly in front, very near, as a feeling of equality, even intimacy, is aroused. Standing at one side is not good, since it forces half the audience to turn uncomfortably. A person with a stiff, aching neck is not a good listener.

The chief reason for facing the hearers is the opportunity

it gives to use the eyes. Yet some, in the best possible position, fail to make use of it. They gaze at the ceiling, the walls, or at a window. This is, in the first place, discourteous. It gives the impression of wandering attention and a lack of personal interest. Moreover, it lessens power over the audience. Keeping the eye-hold secures attention, gives an impression of personal interest, arouses answering interest and sympathy, and gives full scope to whatever magnetism the speaker possesses. To disregard these is, to say the least, unwise.

The bearing of the whole person has great effect, for good or bad. A natural attitude is always desirable. The best actors are those who seem like real people, not those who affect a conventional walk, manner, or speech. Wendell Phillips, said by John Bright to be "the most eloquent voice which spoke the English tongue," adapted, according to Dr. Buckley, "the dignified colloquial to every style of address from the lecture in academic halls to scathing invective or solemn appeal in popular assemblies."

A good bearing, if not natural, may be acquired by intelligent effort. A speaker who habitually leans on anything, a pulpit or a chair, or who supports himself by a desk, or constantly fingers a piece of furniture, lacks dignity and fails to gain full attention. The writer once saw a college professor, addressing a body of teachers, go several rows down into a crowded room, and stand on one foot, with his hands constantly shifting on a chair which he kept moving. The best bearing, in general, is the erect one, with chest up, thighs back, knees straight, both feet firmly on the floor, but one slightly in advance of the other. This gives animation, and need not be awkward. Nor is it necessary to keep the same position throughout. Occasional change is restful to both speaker and hearer. A step or two back-

ward, forward, or to one side, to mark the pause after a paragraph, is advisable. The same foot need not always be foremost.

Moreover, different ideas require different attitudes. The passive is the more natural. The active shows intensity. The head is more firmly set, the chest more expanded, the limbs more energized. Sometimes, the bearing may be actually retiring, to suit the words.

Exercise I.

Express the following, taking the attitude that seems most natural for each:

1. Gentlemen, we have met here to-night to consider a measure of the utmost importance to our citizens. We all know how many people are shut up, most of the time, in close, dimly lighted factories and stores, even in dark homes. It has been proposed to give these, less fortunate than those who can go to the country for air and quiet, the opportunity to spend a few hours, whenever they have leisure, in God's out of doors, in a public park.

2. Why, then, should we defer the Declaration? Is any man so weak as now to hope for a reconciliation with England, which shall leave either safety to the country and its liberties, or safety to his own life and his own honor? Are not you, Sir, who sit in that chair,—is not he, our venerable colleague near you,—are you not both already the proscribed and predestined objects of punishment and of vengeance?

3. Shall we not take the banner of righteousness in hand, hold it aloft, and bear it into the dark continent? Shall we not take to those heathen peoples the blessing of our freedom, the fruits of our civilization?

4. I grant, gentlemen, that all my opponent has said as to the necessities of this campaign is true. Though I had looked forward to being your candidate, I withdraw in favor of a compromise choice.

The facial expression naturally indicates the feeling. When, in talking, one wants to give an idea of another's speech and acts, he often reproduces the expression. Facial changes are among the simplest, easiest forms of emphasis, yet many people when talking in public try to keep their faces utterly vacant and expressionless. They try, in fact, to be just as unnatural as possible. This apparent apathy defeats the object of speaking, since it decreases effectiveness by boring and annoying the hearers.

There is no reason why, when a person has good news or something pleasant to say, or wants to show courtesy or good-will, he should put on a pained, tired, sad look. On the contrary, he will follow his inclinations, if wise, and allow the features to relax into a smile. If he wishes to express anger or defiance, he is likely, if he does what he would do in ordinary intercourse, to frown slightly and to thrust the head forward with a steady look. The scornful girl tilts her nose and raises the lip, throwing her head slightly back. Boys are entirely capable of the same thing, and do not refrain from it among their fellows. A disappointed child has a dejected, softened look. Older people have not forgotten how to express sorrow, but practice restraint more. There is no reason why people should not avail themselves of every change of countenance that will aid them in speaking. Whether praying or asking a favor, we naturally look upward with hope, just as when ashamed we look down or away. After all, we merely utilize the instinctive forms of facial expression when we allow our features full play. We need most to get over the idea that, when we are before others on more or less formal occasions, we should be other than ourselves or should make blocks of wood of our flexible, responsive human forms. *Life* is what we want to show, not petrification. Why should we

make an artificial thing out of the first and simplest way we all had of making ourselves understood? The eighteenth century cry of "back to nature" might be used now for speakers, because many have forgotten the natural ways of revealing mind through the body.

This applies also to the use of various parts of the body. The use of hands and arms appeals to the eye, but it also aids the ear of the listener. It emphasizes the voice of the speaker, and should harmonize with it. **Gesture** is the simplest kind of sign language, growing out of feeling. The baby wants a bright object, grabs it, and holds it tight. He may even throw his whole body forward. He draws back in fear, or pulls his hand away from a stranger. Deaf mutes use signs to denote many things. People of different nationalities often make each other understand by using hands and fingers, or moving the head in various ways.

The reason gesture is so hard for young people is that they make it so. They think they cannot use their hands, when other people are looking at them. Yet they all use any number of gestures in ordinary talk, when they forget themselves. If speakers would think of the message they want to give, and of the hearers, they would not be embarrassed as to how to act. If women, before speaking, would remove hat and gloves, they would be more free in expression.

The best rule for gesture is to use the body as feeling and instinct suggest. If you can't help using your hands while talking, you probably have all the gestures you need, and use them most effectively. If you are not strongly impelled to use your hands, just let the inclination or instinctive suggestion have full play. If you really get into the spirit of what you have to say, you can't help feeling

some sort of impulse, however faint, to emphasize it in other ways than by voice.

It is true that natural movements of this kind are not always graceful. A well-known lecturer said, in a series of addresses to students on extemporaneous speaking, that his gestures were all unstudied, and that he never made an ungraceful one. But the people who heard him thought that it was neither graceful nor effective for him to raise his hand to the tip of his nose every few minutes. Through his neglect to distinguish between useful and useless motions, he had formed a disagreeable habit.

You will readily think of some of the most common gestures. A nod, a shake or a toss of the head indicates a special feeling. The pointing of the finger, the laying of the finger on the lips, the doubled fist, the clenched hand, the outstretched one, the palm turned outward as if to ward off a blow, the raising of the hand, the "sawing" motion, the measuring one, all express definite ideas. You could interpret a person's general meaning without words by any one of these. Accompanying words, they make the thought clearer, bear out the words, make a double impression.

Gesture includes the use of various parts of the body, especially the head, arms, and hands. When a person holds his head erect, the attitude denotes a sense of power, of self-confidence, dignity, and earnestness. If he lowers it, he may be sad, ashamed, thoughtful, or desirous of showing courtesy, attention, or deference. If he raises it above the usual level, he is probably moved by joy, pride, or triumph.

One naturally turns away his head if he feels distrust or dislike. If he thrusts it forward, he wants or expects something, is eager for it. But he will draw back from that which he fears or hates, or from a person who arouses his anger.

In ordinary conversation, the arms are moved at the elbow, about on a level with the waist. When a speaker wants to be very impressive, and exaggerates manner for the sake of effect, he moves his arms from the shoulder with a broader sweep, and raises them sometimes to shoulder level. This is sometimes called the oratorical gesture. Dramatic emphasis is more intense than either of the others.

The arm may be extended straight, as in denunciation or vigorous emphasis, or curved and gradually straightened without stiffness to indicate location or extent. The arms may also be bent or folded, if the thought would naturally be accompanied by such a movement. Both arms may be used, but they must be kept in harmony, expressing the same emotion strongly, indicating opposites in meaning or position, or expressing different phases of some idea.

The hand is most important in gesture, because most used. There are many ways of using it, but a few have become generally accepted as denoting certain meanings.

When the hand is supine, it is outstretched with the palm slightly up. This is the most common of all positions and signifies assertion or emphasis in explanation, affirmation, command, demand, concession, welcome, as well as appreciation of the beautiful.

When the hand is prone, it is extended straight with the palm down and with the fingers closer together than in the supine position. It is sometimes used to denote the addition of successive facts or points, but more for concealment, repression, prohibition, or compulsion.

The hand may be raised to call attention or to keep out disturbance. This is a perfectly natural gesture, without stiffening of arm or hand.

The vertical position is that of the hand raised sharply

at the wrist, palm vertical, turned outward, with muscles tense. This expresses aversion, repulsion, depreciation, scattering.

The clenched hand indicates anger, defiance, emphatic declaration, denunciation, desperation, resolve.

The first finger is used to point out, to enforce or emphasize, to distinguish, to warn, threaten, and ridicule.

It may not be amiss to caution against some annoying mannerisms that are too frequent, even with noted speakers. The audience is not impressed, only disgusted, when a man jumps up and down, hurries nervously from one side of the platform to the other, pounds on the desk with a book, bends far over and glares at the hearers, or shouts raucously. Affected, insincere laughter tends to lessen confidence in what is said. Wrinkling the forehead and scowling become habits all too soon, habits from which there is no escape. It is disagreeable to see one compress the lips frequently, or wipe the face often, or use any one movement constantly. In fact, all mannerisms become faults in a very short time.

Exercise II.

Tell what feeling or idea you would think the speaker had if he used the following gestures:

1. Both arms raised, palms facing, head turned upward.
2. Arms folded, head down.
3. Hand vertical, head turned away.
4. Head erect, arms on level with waist, slowly spreading.
5. Head thrust forward, index finger pointing.
6. Hand supine, but tense, moving up and down, the downward motions quick.
7. Hand prone, but slightly to one side, and tense.
8. Hand supine, arm raised almost to level of shoulder, head slightly raised.

9. Arm extended, fingers curved, head forward.
10. Both arms slightly extended, straight, hands with palms facing, fingers straight.
11. Arm slightly extended, hand between prone and vertical positions, not tense.
12. Hand on forehead, head not bent.
13. Arm extended, curved, palm toward body, fingers loose.
14. Hands slightly raised, palms facing, or clasped, head upward.

Exercise III.

How do you think the following could be expressed by the body?

1. Come, little one, tell me about your game.
2. Hence, idle creature, hence!
3. I tell you, the next two years will see a marked change in the attitude of the people toward the trusts.
4. My client has been the victim of one of the vilest conspiracies ever known in this county.
5. Gentlemen of the jury, I appeal to you to consider the youth of the prisoner, to remember his poor old mother, waiting here patiently day after day, sure of her son's innocence, trusting in his final release.
6. There on the horizon rose a tiny cloud of dust. Two specks appeared. Swiftly they drew nearer, till the watcher could distinguish the forms of a man and a boy on horseback. At a distance of a few hundred yards, both turned, and galloped away in opposite directions, till they were lost, one in the brush, and the other over the hill.
7. I wonder whether I shall ever see that little village again. I remember how the boys used to gather at the station when the train came in, how they ran out as if to greet it, and watched it puffing along the platform.
8. There he goes! quick! after him! You'll catch him yet!
Hurry!
9. The lonely woman sat in the gloaming, by a low window,

rocking slowly, as she looked out across the darkening fields, straining her eyes to see the new-made grave on yonder hillside.

10. Shall we let this man go free, dangerous maniac as he has been shown to be? Shall we allow him to be a menace to other lives? No! a thousand times no! Put him away from among the unsuspecting, the carefree. Put him behind the bars of a madhouse. Bind him, if need be, to keep him from violence and crime.

11. It is a privilege, ladies and gentlemen, to be here to-day. It is a pleasure to join in doing honor to one who is so well known, so universally beloved, as the distinguished guest who sits beside me here.

12. Can we live longer in the past? No. Can we look into the future and say what time shall bring to us? No. Let us, then, live while it is yet to-day, do the work set before us, and hour by hour build for what may be.

13. You thief! You scoundrel! You contemptible villain! Give me back my money, or I'll put you in jail!

14. Not one step farther! If you dare try to take advantage of that boy, I'll see that you get your deserts.

15. Please, Mamma, let me go just this once! I won't ask again this whole year! Just this once!

16. What under heavens made you think of that? Didn't you know that such a course would be rank folly, and spoil the chances of all of us for the next ten years? I did think you had some sense!

17. Oh Jenny, I'm so glad to see you. Don't you want to go to the opening at Wanamaker's with me? They have the loveliest things, just imported. And there are yards and yards of stuff at the most ridiculous prices. Do come!

18. Why, certainly, take all you want of it. I shan't want any more. I'm afraid it isn't worth much, but you're perfectly welcome to all you want to carry.

19. Death came to him in the twilight, among his books, where he used to sit and commune with the great minds around him. Perhaps his spirit, in some other realm, is now in still closer touch with theirs. Perhaps the truth toward which he blindly groped is now clear to him.

THE USE OF THE VOICE

Many people of insignificant presence, and others who seldom gesture, have held thousands spellbound by the use of the voice. A very large part of Mr. Bryan's great success as an orator is due to a wonderful voice, rich, flexible, of exceptional range and carrying quality. Some are gifted with good voices, others have to develop them. Fortunately, the weakest, most disagreeable voice can be greatly improved by even a little faithful practice.

Many young speakers fail to talk so that they can be heard more than a few feet away. This fault is not usually due to any defect or weakness in the voice, since the same boys and girls playing games or talking at recess can be heard a long distance away without the slightest difficulty. When they stand up to say anything really worth while, they are very demure and subdued, in voice as well as manner. A fairer division of the exercise of lung power is "a consummation devoutly to be wished." A speaker is likely to think he is talking much louder than he is. If he will breathe deep, throw out his chest, open his mouth wide, and then throw his voice out into space, the probability is that he can be heard in the back of the room. This does not mean screaming, shrillness, nor rau-cousness. It means letting out the natural voice.

The first essential is **right breathing**. Not only do the fullest use and the preservation of the voice depend on this, but quiet, deep breathing is the surest cure, according to those who have studied its effects thoroughly, for nervousness. He who would speak or sing must first breathe, not only that he may live, but that he may be heard. Although instruction is best gained from a teacher

who illustrates his precepts, a few exercises may be practiced without aid. Careful practice of the exercises in the calisthenic period will also help in voice production.

*Exercise IV.**

Have good circulation of air. It is important that the nose be used in breathing. Otherwise, when one speaks, the mouth will become dry, rendering speech difficult. The exercises may be accompanied by raising the arms while inhaling, lowering them while exhaling.

These exercises should not all be taken at first, but increased gradually. After some time, try to lengthen the period of retaining the breath.

Take position standing, body erect, chin in, chest out, thighs back, front of ear in line with ball of foot, front of shoulder with front of hip.

1. Inhale slowly and smoothly, naturally but with thought control, counting 10 mentally; exhale, counting 10. Repeat 10 times.
2. Inhale 10 counts, hold breath 5, exhale 10. Repeat 10 times.
3. Inhale, hold breath counts 5-10, continue inhalation 11-15, exhale 1-5, hold 6-10, continue 11-15. Repeat 10 times.
4. Inhale counts 1-5, hold 6-10, continue 11-15, hold 5, exhale 1-5, hold 6-10, continue 11-15. Repeat 10 times.
5. Inhale 10 counts, hold 10; exhale 10. Repeat 10 times.
6. Inhale 10, hold 20, exhale 10. Repeat 10 times.
7. After the above have been perfected without any strain, practice taking longer, deeper breaths, and holding the breath longer, increasing very gradually.

* The instructor should give preparatory muscular exercises, for expanding just above the waist: forward, to the sides, at the back, then all around, as if bursting a tight band. These should be muscular movements only until easily taken. Then deep inhalation should be practiced at the same time.

8. Practice above exercises, lying flat on the back.
9. Practice the same ones, sitting erect, the spine vertical, hips back.

EXPRESSIVENESS THROUGH VARIATION

No matter how good a person's voice may be, even though it be clear, resonant, even musical, it must be directed and controlled by the mind. Unless the voice is in coördination with the thought, it is impossible to express just what the speaker wants to convey. You may illustrate this for yourself by saying "oh" in as many ways, with as many meanings, as you can. The same words spoken by different persons or by the same ones with dissimilar expression may mean opposite things. The voice is the most flexible, expressive medium. We have certain feelings. These we express through the voice, which is modulated, if we allow it to be, in accordance with the emotions. If we have a definite purpose, we use the voice to attain it. Therefore, we must keep the voice in harmony with the idea. Most of us do this unconsciously in ordinary conversation. We command, plead, flatter, encourage, inspire, frighten, please, or convince, without any thought of difficulty in the manipulation of the voice. But some of us, when talking to eight or ten people, about something worth while, forget the instinctive method of obtaining a hold on our hearers, and, keeping all expression out of our voices, let them become no better than wooden instruments, ill fitted to their use! The result is a painful artificiality, valueless instead of highly effective.

Why should we not take advantage of that with which nature has so richly endowed us, instead of blindly rendering it of no avail by a stiff, forbidding manner and a lifeless, unnatural speech? However, the exaggerated ora-

torical style is almost as bad. What we need is natural simplicity. But this requires practice, strange as it may seem. "The highest art is in the concealment of art."

Monotony tires, variety enlivens. The man who does the same thing, in the same way, day after day, year after year, not only loses interest in his work, but becomes a machine incapable of original work. Constant repetition of sounds has been known to destroy mentality. The droning of a prosy preacher sends the listener to sleep. So the good speaker varies or modulates his voice to give expression. These variations are usually found in the kind or **QUALITY OF TONE** used, in the **FORCE OR INTENSITY**, in the **PITCH**, and in the **RATE OF SPEED** of the flow of words.

QUALITY may be classified in five varieties: The ordinary, unemotional tone used in commonplace statements is the normal, or most natural. No effort need be made to make an unusual impression, for that is not desired. To attempt to make it would be affectation, and consequently unendurable in the greater part of ordinary intercourse.

1. They say coal is going up. I think perhaps we ought to order this week.
2. The first part of the reign of Louis XVI, close to the Terror as it was, probably did not seem likely to usher in a revolution of all Europe.
3. The natural surroundings were beautiful; yet, in the midst of a paradise, she longed for other lands, other scenes.

The **orotund tone** is used when deep or lofty feeling, under control, is expressed. It is ful and resonant, used with dignity and a full sense of values to denote religious fervor, patriotic enthusiasm, moral sense, or any high, noble feeling. Of course, it should be used with care. Otherwise it becomes ridiculous. A pupil standing before his mates has little occasion for the oratorical style. If he is

really interested in what he has to say, he is likely to reveal his feeling about the importance of it without effort.

1. Roll on, thou deep and dark blue ocean, roll! BYRON.
2. Great is the Lord, and greatly to be praised in the city of our God, in the mountain of his holiness. *The Bible.*
3. Surely it is an awful subject; or there is none so on this side of the grave. BURKE.

The **guttural** or **throat tone** is, on the other hand, the natural one for expression of the opposite feelings, the lower ones, of malice, envy, contempt, hate, revenge, any emotion which is disagreeable or selfish. Instead of throwing out the full voice, the speaker shrinks, and cramps the organs, as if he longs to do injury to someone, but dares not.

1. I hate you! I loath the very sight of you! I wish I never had to think of you again!

2. Oh, you will, will you? Well, I guess not!
3. How like a fawning publican he looks!

I hate him for he is a Christian,
But more for that in low simplicity
He lends out money gratis and brings down
The rate of usance here with us in Venice.
If I can catch him once upon the hip,
I will feed fat the ancient grudge I bear him.

Merchant of Venice.

4. You showed your teeth like apes, and fawned like hounds.

The **pectoral** quality is a chest product, deeper, less constrained than the guttural. Emotion bursts forth, no longer controllable, the outpouring of pity, remorse, horror, dread. It is solemn and slow, not excited.

1. O judgment! thou art fled to brutish beasts,
And men have lost their reason. Bear with me;
My heart is in the coffin there with Cæsar,
And I must pause till it come back to me. *Julius Cæsar.*

2. Here's the smell of the blood still: all the perfumes of Arabia will not sweeten this little hand. Oh, oh, oh!

Macbeth.

3. Don't come near me! I can't bear to see it! Oh, I can't stand it any longer!

The aspirate is a higher tone, indicating intense feeling, difficult of expression and reluctantly brought forth. It has some of the characteristics of the whisper. Frequently it denotes caution, secrecy, or fear, but sometimes weakness, awe, or surprise.

Lady M. Alack, I am afraid they have awaked,
And 'tis not done. The attempt and not the deed
Confounds us. Hark! I laid their daggers ready;
He could not miss 'em.

Macbeth. I have done the deed. Didst thou not hear a noise?

Lady M. I heard the owl scream and the crickets cry.
Did you not speak?

Macbeth.

The **falsetto** is used in imitating children and old people. It is somewhat shrill and high, often quavering, unsteady, as if there were no strong mentality governing it.

Shan't we go to-morrow, Mamma? Don't you just hope Uncle Don'll be there to meet us?

We have found that **emphasis** depends partly on the use of material, through apportionment of time to the different phases of the subject, and through arrangement with regard to climax, partly on the bodily attitude and use of gestures and facial expression. But the use of the voice is no less important. Emphasis may be distorted, the effectiveness decreased, and the meaning changed, by wrong vocal emphasis.

The right application to words of power or energy in various degrees of intensity is called **FORCE**.

Ordinary remarks are made with a natural amount of force. Only such words as need to be brought out because of the meaning, or their relation to other words, or their introduction of a new thought, or their office in pointing out something are given greater emphasis. Read aloud any explanatory sentence in this book, or make up any ordinary conversation or talk, to illustrate this.

The use of **full force**, strong and energetic, is necessary in attracting sharp attention, in driving home an idea, in firing the hearer with enthusiasm, in carrying him along with the speaker's thought or feeling.

1. Give me liberty, or give me death! PATRICK HENRY.

2. Do we mean to submit to the measures of Parliament, Boston Port Bill and all? Do we mean to submit, and consent that we ourselves shall be ground to powder, and our country and its rights trodden down in the dust? I know we do not mean to submit. We never shall submit. PATRICK HENRY.

3. Make the goal, boys! Don't let 'em hold you back!

The weak, or **subdued force** is used when an impression of earnestness, sympathy, calmness, or forced control over emotion is to be conveyed.

1. As we entered the room, not a sound was heard. The curtains moved gently to and fro, as the soft wind caressed them. Peering into the dusk, we could see her there in her accustomed chair her head resting on her breast—quiet, forever.

2. My heart is in the coffin there, with Cæsar,
And I must pause, till it come back to me. *Julius Cæsar.*

There are possible degrees between the natural and full force, and between the natural and subdued. Great care

must be taken not to use any to excess. Mere loudness does not impress anyone. Continued exertion not only exhausts the speaker but wearies the audience, and makes impossible real emphasis because there is nothing left to use. Moreover, straining after effect is always distasteful. But to refrain always from exerting energy gives the impression of lack of it, of weak ideas and a poor cause, and deadens interest. There should always be an impression of intense vitality, of reserve force, of strength that is not often asserted, but may be whenever occasion arises. A good way is to begin naturally, and work up to whatever degree is needed to bring out the thought. But there should always be the effect of mental control, of balance. Bishop Hughes is a master of the art of increasing emphasis. He begins as though talking in an ordinary room, but, if the subject is a vital one, he is electrified before the end, and has magnetized his audience.

Though some orators still deliver sentence after sentence at about the same level, most talking and public speaking has infinite shading of emphasis, resulting partly from distribution of force within the sentence, partly from the internal stressing of words or syllables.

In poetry there is a regular recurrence of stress. This makes rhythm.

The melting voice through mazes running,
Untwisting all the chains that tie
The hidden soul of harmony.

MILTON.

In prose the stress is more variable, both in position and strength. But it can be as easily marked.

There is, and always has been, a real alliance between the two extreme parties in this country. They play into each other's hands. They live by each other. Neither would have any in-

fluence if the other were taken away. . . I see, and glad I am to see, that the nation perfectly understands and justly appreciates this coalition between those who hate all liberty and those who hate all order. England has spoken, and spoken out. From her most opulent seaports, from her manufacturing towns, from her capital and its gigantic suburbs, from almost every one of her counties, has gone forth a voice, answering in no doubtful or faltering accent to that truly royal voice which appealed on the twenty-second of last April to the sense of the nation.

MACAULAY. *Speech on Parliamentary Reform.*

You will note that no one part of speech is stressed especially, apart from the desired emphasis or clear expression of meaning. You will also note that the amount of stress varies greatly.

Sometimes stress is applied to only one syllable. The position of it may vary according to feeling, even within the syllable. Practice the selections given to illustrate quality of tone, and those to illustrate pitch, to note the possible variations. Practice saying the same thing so that it has different meanings.

In simple musical compositions there is a melody which consists of a succession of notes of varying pitch. The tune is fitted to the words. There is a setting of Browning's song ending

“God’s in his heaven—
All’s right with the world!”

in which there is not only a crescendo, but a swift rise in pitch at the end, producing a tremendous effect of the glad burst of joy and confidence.

So in speech PITCH is used along with force to give variety and expression. In fact, some use it almost to the exclusion of the stress accent. This is rare, especially in men, and is likely to become disagreeable and wearisome.

But sameness of pitch would make the best speech dull and ineffective.

Most voices have a considerable range of pitch. Some speakers consider that at least eight grades may be distinguished, but five will be sufficient for us to consider, though the variations and combinations of these are infinite.

The middle, ordinary, or normal pitch is that used most naturally when making a commonplace statement with no effort at expressiveness. "It may rain to-morrow." "That battle occurred fifty years ago to-day."

As the speaker becomes less calm and gives way to emotions of some intensity such as joy, enthusiasm, anxiety, anger or any other passion, he experiences more rapid vibrations of the vocal cords, resulting in high pitch. If the excitement is great, the pitch is very high. The ideas of command or of rapid motion even may result in the heightening of pitch. One unaccustomed to command, or to self-control, is most likely to raise the pitch.

1. Get off the steps! Get out of my way!
2. Oh nurse, you hurt when you pull my hair!
3. Help, help! the house is on fire!
4. *Cassius.* When Cæsar lived, he durst not thus have moved me.
Brutus. Peace, peace! You durst not so have tempted him.
Cassius. I durst not?
Brutus. No.
Cassius. What? Durst not tempt him?
Brutus. For your life you durst not.
Cassius. Do not presume too much upon my love;
I may do that I shall be sorry for. *Julius Cæsar.*

Low pitch is used for serious, grave, impressive remarks. If they are very solemn, show deep reflection or sadness, very low pitch may be used.

Brutus. It must be by his death: and, for my part,
 I know no personal cause to spurn at him,
 But for the general. He would be crowned:—
 How that might change his nature, there's the question.

Julius Cæsar.

Earth to earth, ashes to ashes, dust to dust. Many a young hand dropped in its little wreath, many a stifled sob was heard. Some—and they were not a few—knelt down. All were sincere and truthful in their sorrow. *DICKENS. Old Curiosity Shop.*

You must have noticed that most of these selections change pitch. That is, there is frequent variation from the general level. In a few instances, there is sustained emphasis or pitch, often rising slightly toward the end.

You blocks, you stones, you worse than senseless things
 O you hard hearts, you cruel men of Rome.
 Knew you not Pompey? *Julius Cæsar.*

Sometimes several sentences are spoken with a steadily rising inflection.

I wake—where was I—do I see
 A human face look down on me?
 And doth a roof above me close?
 Do these limbs on a couch repose?
 Is this a chamber where I lie?
 And is it mortal, yon bright eye,
 That watches me with gentle glance?

BYRON. Mazeppa.

Questions in expectation of the answer “yes” or “no” require rising pitch, unless they are expressed in the declarative form:

Are you going to-morrow if it rains?
 You are not going to-morrow if it rains?
 Will you accept?
 Of course you will accept?

Ordinary declarative sentences and rhetorical questions fall in pitch at the end.

So clearly, indeed, has the sense of the nation been expressed, that scarcely any person now ventures to declare himself hostile to all reform.

For who can answer plain arithmetical demonstration?

MACAULAY.

Sometimes inflection rises and falls several times in the course of a sentence.

For myself, having, twelve months ago, in this place, moved you that George Washington be appointed commander of the forces raised, or to be raised, for defense of American liberty, may my right hand forget her cunning, and my tongue cleave to the roof of my mouth, if I hesitate or waver in the support I give him.

WEBSTER.

One should be careful not to use high pitch too much. Low pitch gives a sense of power, control, reserve. It leaves opportunity for raising toward the end with good effect though this should not involve ranting nor rasping. Low pitch saves the voice, too, and is more pleasing for long-continued speech. Usually, it is more impressive.

Ordinarily, RATE, or SPEED OF UTTERING WORDS, corresponds to force, and often to pitch. The normal rate is that of calm, natural speech, with words clearly distinct. When aroused, one is likely, from enthusiasm, earnestness, excitement, to speak fast or even very fast.

1. Sink or swim, live or die, survive or perish, I give my hand and my heart to this vote. WEBSTER. *Adams and Jefferson.*

2. Tear him for his bad verses, tear him for his bad verses.

Julius Cæsar.

3. Pell-mell, helter-skelter they came, rushing out as if the doors of a jail had been opened, and they were all eager to get a taste of long-desired freedom.

The slow rate denotes serenity, seriousness, caution, and self-control. When there is reverence, deep thought, or reflection, the very slow may be used.

1. With solemnities suited to the occasion, with prayers to Almighty God for his blessing, and in the midst of this cloud of witnesses, we have begun the work. . . . All is peace; and God has granted you this sight of your country's happiness, ere you slumber in the grave forever. WEBSTER. *Bunker Hill Oration.*

2. Holy, holy, holy, Lord God Almighty.

3. What? thou speak'st drowsily?

Poor knave, I blame thee not; thou art o'erwatched.

It was well done; and thou shalt sleep again;

I will not hold thee long; if I do live,

I will be good to thee.

This is a sleepy tune.

Julius Caesar.

4. To be or not to be,—that is the question.

Hamlet.

It is better to speak slowly at first. If the initial rate is normal the rate naturally increases until it becomes too rapid for clear enunciation. If words are spoken rapidly in a large room, they become confused, and are indistinguishable in the rear. Deliberation aids clearness and emphasis.

Whatever the rate at which words are uttered, there must be **pauses**. No one can keep up continuous expression, nor should he if he could. Pauses have two uses. Those that are the result of grammatical structure are to help make the speaker's meaning clear. If you will read any article or speech without regard to punctuation, you will see this. Punctuation is just as necessary in speech as in writing; indeed, it is more so, for the longer pauses indicate the paragraphs and the longest the general divisions of the outline. To rest both speaker and hearer, then, and

to make sentences and structure clear, one must pause, however slightly.

The short pauses correspond to phrasing in music, and to the caesura in scansion of poetry. Rhythm, as necessary in prose as in poetry, does not mean monotony, or tedious regularity. Just as there must be variety in tone, increase and decrease of force, rising and falling of pitch, there must be change of rate and frequent pauses.

Some of the most needful yet neglected pauses are those after the vocative, or direct address, before participial phrases, and before *but* when it introduces a contrasting idea.

Notice how necessary pauses are, in the following, to make the meaning clear:

I have his father's letter in which he informs me his son is set out and that he intends to follow himself shortly after.

She Stoops to Conquer.

ENUNCIATION

Clear speaking is perhaps the most essential attainment for all who talk, anywhere, under any circumstances. You all know how annoying it is to be unable to "catch" what is said. You do not like to ask your friends to repeat the names of those to whom they introduce you, but it is often necessary. You do not like to ask people constantly to say again what has once been said, or risk appearing stupid because you cannot answer intelligently, or to render yourself liable to serious mistake in attempting to follow directions only partly heard, yet the common habit, indistinct articulation, makes one of these inevitable. A large proportion of the American people is of foreign birth or parentage. Many more are careless and slovenly in enunciation, even more than in the use of words. Care in clear

articulation is as much a mark of culture as is care in dress and manner.

Although a few people have natural defects, most can overcome these, and all who are normal can by practice improve their speech to such an extent that they can make themselves heard and understood at considerable distances. John Fox, a famous preacher of South Place Chapel, London, "whose voice was neither loud nor strong, was heard in every part and all over Covent Garden Theatre, when he made anti-corn-law orations, by the clearness with which he pronounced the final consonants of the words he spoke." (G. J. Holyoake, *Public Speaking and Debate*.) After Colonel Roosevelt had been wounded, in the campaign of 1912, he spoke in Madison Square Garden, New York City, to more than sixteen thousand people. Though weakened and under a severe strain, he made himself heard through that great building, an arena rather than an auditorium, by the clearness of his enunciation.

In this, as in other things, "practice makes perfect." The first necessity is to open your mouth, and open it wide enough for the sound to get out. Try talking with the mouth shut and note the effect. The next thing is to use the organs of speech the way they were meant to be used to produce certain sounds. This requires some intentness when learning how, but soon becomes natural, as the primal nature of speech is allowed to assert itself.

Some of you have been taught in the elementary schools how the sounds are made. But many have not yet learned that various organs, with different functions, have their parts in producing sound. You probably do not think of the palate except when it becomes elongated and causes a cough. Yet the palate is used every time you say *skate*, *game*, or *yard*. (Hard *k*, *g*, and *y*.)

Pronounce *name* and *sing*, and notice how, because the mouth passage is stopped, the sound is forced through the nose.

The tongue is used in the sounds of *l* and *r*, as you can readily tell. But it is used also in forming *s*, *d*, *n*, *z*, and others, since it must have such a position as enables the other organs to do their work.

The lips are necessary for *p*, *b*, *f*, *v*, *m*, *w*. You may have heard someone with a harelip try to talk. The lips cannot come together, and therefore such sounds cannot be made.

The teeth are almost as important in speaking as in eating. In the word *dentist* there are three distinct "dental" sounds, *d*, *t*, *s*. The position of the teeth must be changed for each of the others. In the sounds soft *c*, *s*, *cent*, *sent*, *ch*, *child*; soft *g*, *j*, *gem*, *jam*; *s*, *z*, *measles*, *zeal*; and *sh*, *zh*, *th*, *ship*, *derision*, *tooth*, the teeth are used.

You have noticed, when pronouncing some of these words, that the breath is important. Vowel sounds are pure tone sounds, the voice meeting no obstruction, but being modified by the degree and manner of opening the mouth. Some consonants are voice sounds that meet obstructions, as *l*, *r*, *m*, *n*, *b*, *d*, *z*, *th*, *zh*, *v*, *w*, *y*, *g*, *j*. These require breath to help them out of the mouth. Others are sent out by breath alone, through different parts of the mouth. They are *f*, *p*, *s*, *t*, *k*, *h*, *th*, *sh*, *wh*, *ch*.

Before taking Exercises V-VIII, practice the breathing exercises on page 136, or others given by your teacher. Place yourself where you have space enough to let out your voice. Provide yourself with a hand mirror, so that you can watch every movement of the organs of speech. Use your fingers to feel, and your mind to coördinate the movements. Remember that deaf and blind mutes

have been taught to speak. Why should you fail to profit by their experience, in training and perfecting your own good gifts?

Do not be afraid to "talk out loud," or to make queer noises. The neighbors and the family can stand it as well as they endure the running of the scales and the practice of finger exercises. The ability to make yourself heard will really be of more use to you than playing the piano.

Exercise V.

Practice all the vowels with "long" quantity. Prolong the sound. Make it full and deep. ā, ē, ī, ō, ū.

Practice all the vowels with "short" quantity. ā, ē, ī, ō, ū.

Practice every vowel with every quantity and variation you can think of and can produce. Note the different positions of the mouth, the extent to which it is opened, the position of lips, teeth, tongue.

Practice rapid change, a e, a o, e a, e o, i o, o a, o e, u a, u o.

Practice regular diphthong sounds oi, ou.

Exercise VI.

Pronounce every consonant, in turn, and such combinations as ch, qw, sh, zh, wh, th.

Watch the action of the organs. What ones are used? How? Are they primary or auxiliary? What is their position? How does it differ from that in similar sounds?

Note.—The following exercises have been worked out independently by the author, who does not, however, claim that they are different from many to be found elsewhere. Some were, in fact, found in other books after the writer had herself arranged them. Invaluable exercises may be found in a book, *Illustrated Phonics*, by M. I. Ives.

Exercise VII.

Use vowels before consonants, with different vowel quantities.

Ab, ad, af, ag, aj, ak, al, am, an, ap, ar, as, at, av, az.

Eb, ed, ef, eg, ej, ek, el, em, en, ep, er, es, et, ev, ez.

Ib, id, if, ig, ij, ik, il, im, in, ip, ir, is, it, iv, iz.

Ob, od, of, og, oj, ok, ol, om, on, op, or, os, ot, ov, oz.

Ub, ud, uf, ug, uj, uk, ul, um, un, up, ur, us, ut, uv, uz.

Use consonants before vowels, with different vowel quantities.

Ba, da, fa, ga, ha, ja, ka, la, ma, na, pa, ra, sa, ta, va, wa, ya, za.

Be, de, fe, ge, he, je, ke, le, me, ne, pe, re, se, te, ve, we, ye, ze.

Bi, di, fi, gi, hi, ji, ki, li, mi, ni, pi, ri, si, ti, vi, wi, yi, zi.

Bo, do, fo, go, ho, jo, ko, lo, mo, no, po, ro, so, to, vo, wo, yo, zo.

Bu, du, fu, gu, hu, ju, ku, lu, mu, nu, pu, ru, su, tu, vu, wu, yu, zu.

Use vowels in all quantities in these combinations:

Bla, bra, cha, cla, dra, fla, gla, gna, gra, kla, kra, kwa, pla, pra, sha, ska, sla, spa, sna, spla, sra, sta, stra, skra, tha, thra, tra, thwa, zha. Ble, bre, che, dre, fle, fre, gle, gne, gre, kle, kre, kwe, ple, pre, she, ske, sle, sme, sne, spe, skre, sple, sre, ste, stre, the, thre, thwe, tre, zhe.

Bli, bri, chi, dri, fli, fri, gli, gni, gri, kli, kri, pli, pri, kwi, ski, skri, sli, smi, sni, spi, spli, sri, sti, stri, thri, tri, zhi.

Blo, bro, cho, dro, flo, fro, glo, gno, gro, klo, kro, kwo, plo, pro, sho, sko, slo, smo, sno, skro, splo, sro, sto, stro, thro, thwo, sho.

Blu, bru, chu, dru, flu, fru, glu, gnu, gru, klu, kru, kwu, plu, pru, shu, sku, slu, skru, smu, snu, splu, spru, sro, sru, stu, stru, tho, thu, thru, tru.

Use all vowels, with different quantities, in these combinations, and enunciate words in which they occur.

Abd aft, ags, aks, akt, ald, alt, alv, amb, amp, ampt, amd, and, ang ank, ankt, ans, ant, apt, arb, ard, arg, ark, arm, arn, arp, ars, art, ash, ask, asm, asn, ast, asp, ath, azh.

Ebd, eft, egs, eks, ekt, eld, elm, els, elt, elv, emb, emd, emp, empt, enk, end, eng, ens, ent, env, ept, erb, erd, erg, erk, erm, ern, erp, ers, ert, esh, esk, esm, esn, esp, est, eth.

Ibd, ift, igs, iks, ikt, ild, ilm, ils, ilt, ilv, imb, imd, imp, ind, ink, inkt, ing, ingd, ins, int, ipt, irb, ird, irg, irk, irm, irn, irp, irs, irt, ish, isk, ism, isn, ist, izh, isp, ith.

Obd, oft, ogs, oks, okt, old, olm, ols, olt, olv, omb, omd, omp, ond, ong, ons, ont, opt, orb, ord, org, orj, ork, orm, orn, orp, ors, ort, osh, osk, osm, ost, oth.

Ubd, uft, ugs, uks, ukt, ukts, uld, ulm, uls, ult, ulv, umb, umd, ump, umpt, und, ung, ungd, unkt, uns, unt, upt, urb, urd, urg, urj, urk, urm, urn, urp, urs, urt, ush, usm, usp, uth.

Dr. J. M. Buckley, noted as preacher, lecturer, and debater, quotes Regnier, "master of masters," as giving "a prescription as simple as it is effective for perfecting the articulation. It is based upon what one would do if he wished to confide a secret to a friend and was fearful of being overheard. 'You face your friend exactly, and pronouncing your words distinctly, but in an underbreath, you command your articulation to convey them to your friend's eyes rather than his ears, for he is as carefully watching how you speak as he is intently listening to what you say. Articulation having here a double duty to perform, that of sound as well as its own peculiar function, is compelled, as it were, to dwell strongly on each syllable, so as to land it safely within the intelligence of your hearer.' "

The same idea is shown in the practice of speaking to deaf persons in an ordinary tone, but distinctly enough so that they can read the lips and facial movements.

Exercise VIII.

The following words are selected with a view to practice in clear, distinct enunciation. Although there is some

grouping, many of the words are included because they give practice in several difficult combinations. Each word, then, should be considered in all its parts, not for one sound alone:

Aerial, aviation, aerate, aorta, valuation, altar, all, animate, ask, care, chasm, abysmal, amalgamation, large.

Eden, ebony, elegant, elevated, eligible, err, early, origin, infinitesimal, infirmary, invalid, machine.

Coördinate, coöperate, zoölogy, oblige, odoriferous, euphony.

Formulate, duty, blue, albumen, cuticle, hue, jury, ludicrous, mural.

Linear, stellar, parallel, lily, lull, allow.

Cram, crux, drum, grumble, border, modulate, march, wrestle, purr, corroborate, rabid, glare, rubber.

Blubber, brother, blatant, blooming, globular, grub, disturb, trouble, dribble.

Plebeian, inexplicable, pluperfect, perspicacity, opportunity, plump, split, supplant, support, purport, perplexed, reptile, chirp, emperor, empty, peremptory, decrepit, clipped, cramped, crisp, spunk.

Fame, frame, flame, effort, deficient, physical, nymph, conflict, whiff.

Vain, venerable, avenue, reverent, divine, dive, vivid, velvet, ever, vehement, clover.

Mammal, memorable, mummy, murmur, mumble, emblem, prism, stormy, clumsy, strum, romantic, rhythm, rhyme.

No, on, knowledge, dungeon, clink, now and then, going on, lungs, hang, gangrene, tinkle, surcingle, entwine, instinctively.

Curse, accredited, credulous, cracked, tact, click, chick, crackle, sepulchral, succinct, coruscate, lectern, king, kettle, accentuate.

Choir, quarrelsome, question, querulous, squirrel, unique, piqued, exquisite, articulate, curious.

Glib, gloaming, grave, glutinous, granular, giggle, gurgle, gargoyle, signature, glowing, grim, grill, augment, dogmatic, congregation, agate, egg, keg, grog, jug.

Judge, jugular, dirigible, liturgical, incorrigible, prejudiced, frigid, edge, ridge, bludgeon.

Complexion, mixture, excellent, luxury, exaggerate, eggs, exactly. Dumb, dome, gladden, Armageddon, maddening, drowned, crowd,

mouldering, drastic, compound, dreadnought, deadly, diatribe, disaster, blessed.

Teeming, trained, wished, utter, splutter, glitter, gluttony, Latin, watch, optative, abrupt, perpetuity.

Sum, small, smartly, seismic, slur, strike, spur, sprint, splint, stand, straight, strenuous, distrustful, misspent, misspelled, mist, gossip, godsend, assign, assimilate, stress, fuss, torts, smokeless, sissy, spasmodic, scratch, scorn, scoff.

Rise, tease, quiz, ozone, dizzy, zealot.

Reminiscent, corpuscle, fresco, resuscitate, necessary, susceptible, surcharged, etching, church, effervescent, evanescent, renascence, renaissance.

Shawl, shine, shrink, slush, rush, clash, shrub.

Azure, measure, leisure, seizure, news, views.

Precious, capricious, mendacious.

Association, sectional, nation, function, declension, decision.

Hero, horror, hate, help, humid, hunt, hold, comprehend, adhesion, mishap, unholy, abhorrent, hypodermic, hypocrite, exhume, posthumous.

Whimper, whip, wheat, whether, wheedle, whisper, whine, whimsical, whinny, whist, erstwhile.

Thermometer, throes, threnody, thwart, athwart, through, throne, athletics, mathematics, enthroned, enthusiastic, wreath, wrath, wraith.

With, booth, soothe, tithe, blithe, writhe, thither, hither, whither, withering, though, although, this, thine.

Distinguish carefully the pronunciation of the following words, some sounds of which are confused by pupils in rapid or careless speech.

Abstract, obstruct; came, come; affect, effect; futile, fertile; certain, subtle; separate, suppurate; air, are; our, ere; there, their; sit, sat, set; then, thin; and, end; speak, spick; real, reel; principle, principal; complement, compliment; despair, disparage; describe, discredit; dissipate, disappear; engine, enjoin, jibe; quite, quiet; cereal, serial; series, serious, serous; elusion, illusion, allusion; alliterate,

illiterate; tell, till; sense, since; ten, tin; division, diversion; divers, diverse; council, counsel, consul, conceal; costume, custom; ache, ague; figure, finger, linger, singer; anger, hanger; partner, pardoner; suppose, surprise; sowing, soaring; percept, precept; perhaps, prevent; pervious, previous; proffer, professor; poplar, popular; race, raise; rice, rise; dice, dies; decease, disease; cease, seize; assure, azure; thief, thieve; handkerchief, handkerchieves; leaf, leave; deaf, leaf; pelf, puff; pillow, pillar, cellar, seller; debt, debit; creek, crick; beseech, besiege; pitcher, picture; archangel, archbishop; scheme, scene, schism; thing, think, sing, sink; ton, turn; guile, gull, girl, gill; statue, statute; problem, probably; luxury, luggage; library, liberally; laboratory, Labrador; persecute, prosecute; irrelevant, irreverent; Calvary, cavalry.

PRONUNCIATION

A wrong or unusual pronunciation offends or distracts the hearer. If wrong, it lessens his respect for the authority of the speaker, and therefore detracts from the impression made. If unusual, it causes him to wonder whether his own usage or the speaker's is right, and therefore takes his mind from the thought of the speaker. Use of words about which there is a marked difference of opinion may sometimes be avoided. If in conversation another has just used a pronunciation which you cannot accept, it is more courteous to avoid thrusting your own forward in the next sentence. In public speaking, if a word is used in an unfamiliar way, the audience may think it wrong, whether it is or not. Usually, however, one usage is considered preferable by some good authority. Affectation should be avoided in this as in other things. To many, the use of *ither* and *nither* seems affected, because, in the effort to appear cultured, some people whose grammatical usage and diction are very bad have adopted it, though a large proportion of educated people use *ether* and *nēther*.

Vāse is given the preference in good dictionaries, but some persist in saying *väz*, though their associates use *vāse*.

The best guides to pronunciation are dictionaries, such as the *Century* and *Webster's Unabridged*. When two forms are given, adopt the first, unless most of the people with whom you associate prefer the other. Never try to be different in this just to attract attention. Note the usage of good speakers, and, if you hear some word spoken in a different way from that which you or your friends and teachers use, consult the dictionary. Do not depend on what someone tells you. He may be wrong.

The following lists contain some words often mispronounced. The teacher may add others which his own pupils use.

Wrong pronunciation frequently results from failure to sound the vowel distinctly, to give it the right quantity.

Exercise IX.

Find from the dictionary, noting carefully the diacritical marks, the accepted pronunciation of these words:

Affect, after, branch, ambassador, aviator, dahlia, apparatus, irascible, algebra, Canada, national, Colorado, Danish, was, because, said, again, adequate, vivacious, ay, forbade, squalor, patronage, patriotism, chastening, any, stamp, haunt, launch, staunch, gauge, class, plait.

Effect, get, legend, deleterious, amenable, penal, anemia, fête, creek, pretty, thresh, very, were, then, there, their, leisure, discretion, heinous, deaf, hearth, clerk, heiress, seismic, sergeant, mystery, cemetery, newspaper, economic, kerosene, merit, experiment, presentation, terrible, err, heroic, yet, been, specific, bases, inherent.

Biography, alumni, alumnæ, fragile, genuine, Italian, hostile, isolate, Palestine, Marseilles, servile, Philippi, appendicitis, writhe, grimy, irksome, engine, girl, pianist.

Of, office, coffee, God, log, on, history, polls, phonograph, good, food, fool, Roosevelt, zoölogy, splendor, wound, bomb, foreign, diplomacy, pathos, chaos, moral, join, oyster, route.

Constitute, argument, deluge, figure, introduce, duly, duty, beauty, nuisance, opportune, puissant, stupid, congratulate, column, volume, emolument, enumerate, Russia, luscious, destitute, virulent, future.

Bicycle, cyclic, psychic.

The lack of vowel clearness may result even in loss of syllables.

Burglar, burial, cemetery, correct, cruel, different, history, interest, Latin, memory, monastery, mystery, particularly, poem, poetry, ordinance, probably, regularly, tragedy, trial, prosperous, generally, dangerous, privilege, laborer, vigorous, factory.

Indistinct or wrong articulation of consonants is sometimes the fault.

Health, throat, and thin, should have a different sound from the *th* of *with, soothe, booth, blithe, writhe*.

D, t, p, are often slurred or left out, when they should not be.

Attract, attacked, kept, shiftless, glutton, contempt, corrupt, written, distinctly, just, probably, dreadful, certain.

C, g, and k meet the same fate.

Benignant, arctic, ask, recognize, distinctly, suggest, going, doing, finger, anger.

H is ignored by some Americans as well as by some Englishmen.

Forehead, perhaps, what, which, when, while, wheel.

L, especially when used double, fails to get its rights, or is misplaced.

Finally, collapse, parallel, lull, golf, irrelevant, Calvary.

N is not recognized.

Government, strengthen, lengthen.

R is either passed over, or interchanged with some other sounds, as in

Children, February, formerly, geography, hundred, laboratory, library, pretend, surprise, sturdy, morning, force, sport, third, word.

R is substituted for a final *W*, as in

To-morrow, sorrow, pillow.

A mistake more likely to be made by careful people, because of their good intentions, but inexact knowledge, is the sounding of letters that should be silent.

Business, buoy, extraordinary, quay, mosquito, subtile, edge, humble, alms, almond, salmon, psalm, limn, psyche, corps, raspberry, apostle, epistle, hasten, glisten, often, mortgage, débris, sword.

Cultured people have adopted the slurring of parts of some words to such an extent that it is generally recognized as good usage.

Program, graduate, Newfoundland.

Final *ate* should usually be slurred, as in

Intimate, estimate, delegate, syndicate.

Ignorant people often insert sounds, or change them.

Atheletics (athletics), grievous (grievous), statute (statue), mush-
aroon (mushroom), stupenjous (stupendous), tremenjous (tremen-
dous), Injun (Indian), immejate (immediate).

Many people in some sections add the letter *R*, as in
Lawr (law), sawr (saw), idear (idea).

Care must be taken in the pronunciation of syllables that run together, or take a sound different from the spelling. As the diacritical marks of dictionaries differ for some of these, students often fall into error as a result of study. *Ameliorate, association, celestial, cordial, courtesy, ambitious, capricious, omniscient, pronunciation, social, nature, literature, punctuate, azure, treasure, decision, rouge, protégé, début.*

Misplaced accent is a common fault.

Abdomen, access, acclimated, acumen, adept, address, adult, adversary, advertisement, affluence, alias, alibi, annex, applicable, automobile, cement, chauffeur, clandestine, clematis, cocaine, combine, compromise, compensate, confiscate, conserve, consummate, contrary, contrast (noun), contrast (verb), contumely, conversely, contemplate, decade, decrease, deficit, demonstration, demonstrative, dessert, desultory, detail, disreputable, effete, elegiac, enfranchisement, envelope, exquisite, fanatic, finance, formidable, gallant, gasoline, grimace, highway, horizon, hospitable, hospital, illustrate, illustrative, impotent, incline, incomparable, incorrigible, indisputable, inevitable, inexplicable, inquiry, irreparable, impudent, indigent, kerosene, ludicrous, maintenance, mamma, memoir, mischievous, mustache, offertory, opponent, overture, pariah, perquisite, portray, portière, precedence, prestige, pretense, pretext, primeval, profligate, protégé, protestant, quinine, recess, recluse, recruit, renaissance, requisite, research, respite, restaurant, romance, sonorous, strategic, superfluous, theater, tribunal, tribune, triune, vehement, vehicle.

PROPERTY OF
DEPARTMENT OF DRAMATIC ART

PART II

KINDS OF WRITING AND SPEAKING

CHAPTER V

NARRATION

Although speech preceded writing as a method of expression, the practice of writing has done much to bring form of discourse to a high standard. It is easier to classify and arrange one's thoughts on paper than to keep the plan in mind by an effort of memory. Just as the habit of thinking in an orderly fashion is cultivated by the preparation of full plans for speaking, so the expression is made more sure and smooth by "practice in writing."

Formerly, writing was the pastime or the profession of a few gifted persons; now, it has become an art that can be studied by all with the possibility of becoming excellent workmen, even artists to some degree. In order that beginners may become skilled without making all the mistakes that unguided writers must learn by experience to avoid, principles and rules have been formulated from good examples. Certain **forms of discourse**, adapted to the purpose of the writer or speaker, have been defined, and their nature and characteristics distinguished. These forms are called **Narration, Description, Exposition, and Argumentation**.

We found in Chapter I that the speaker, even more than the writer, is called upon to give expression to his thoughts on many different occasions, before all sorts of people. Surely, then, he needs every variety of form to bring him into touch with his hearers, who cannot turn back for reperusal. The speaker appeals to the mind, but also to the

feelings. He must be able to state clearly and reason convincingly, but he must be able also to appeal to the senses and the emotions, that his experience and feelings may be reproduced in others. Let us, then, see how the speaker may learn to use various forms, as occasion requires, separately or with swift change from one to another.

Probably the most natural, spontaneous, and, in some respects, simple form of expression is narration. The word itself comes from *narratio*, the verb being *narrare*, probably from *gnarigare*, to know. Narration causes others to know what happened, by telling them about the occurrence. It is the telling of a story so vividly and clearly that the hearer realizes just what took place, as if he had seen or experienced it himself.

We all use this form constantly. The child comes crying to his mother, and says, "I fell down and hurt myself." The mother soothes him and, to divert his mind, says, "Oh, you can't guess what I saw on the street. A man came along with a monkey and a hand-organ. The children all crowded around to listen. In a few minutes the monkey took off its cap and started out to gather in pennies. A woman opened a window across the street and held out a penny. The monkey ran across, up the trellis where the woodbine grows, and took the penny right out of her hand!"

The boy on the street, when he meets his boon companion, greets him with, "Say, did you hear what Jack did last night?" and tells the story with gusto. The man coming home from business tells his wife an incident of the office or the train, and the wife relates the latest mistake or escapade of the cook, or tells what the baby did. When the student comes back from a week's vacation, or the mother from a visit to her old home, or the traveler from a trip to Europe, each tells the interested family all about

the trip, with bright touches here and there that increase the interest.

We are all children in some respects, and like to hear what took place in the past. Just as, when small, we listened to grandmother's stories of when she was a little girl, we now listen to tales of the Civil or Spanish War, to recitals of brave deeds, or to the narrative of how great feats were accomplished. We would rather hear Peary tell how he reached the pole, or Dewey how he took Manila, then read a book on the same subject. Sometimes the story of a man's rise from poverty to wealth has all the fascination of the tales of the Arabian Nights.

Nor have we outgrown that heritage of all children, the weaving of possible stories about ourselves and others. Every one of us has spent blissful hours, day after day, when all alone, tracing his fortunes through strange adventures, and holding animated conversations with phantom beings real to him. Sorry the day when we forget how to set ourselves apart for a while to build castles in Spain! But we revel, too, in the fancy of others, which has perhaps risen to greater heights than ours, and is colored with the glamour of the unfamiliar. There has probably never lived a child who didn't like to hear a story, and I am inclined to think that most of us have hoped that we, too, might some day be able to tell stories just as good as any we ever heard. Why should we not? We all have something to tell, and we can all learn how to tell it, some of us, perhaps, as we used to think only the fairies could.

CLASSIFICATION

There are so many kinds of stories, the true ones and those that we almost believe to be true, that it may be helpful to have an outline showing how they may be clas-

sified. Perhaps you can work out a diagram that will be easier for you to keep in mind.

I. A vast amount of narrative is based on fact.

A. Collective or general.

1. Historical happenings.

a. Movements.

b. Conflicts.

(1) Progress.

(2) Battles.

2. Current events.

a. Accidents.

b. Political acts.

c. Industrial happenings.

d. Social events.

B. Individual.

1. Lives.

a. Autobiographic.

b. Biographic.

2. Accounts of personal experiences.

a. Travels.

b. Adventures.

c. Slight incidents or anecdotes.

II. There is a variety of fictional narrative.

A. Novel.

1. Romantic.

2. Historical.

3. Ethical.

4. Social—Novel of manners.

B. Short story.

C. Romance.

D. Tale.

1. Realistic.

2. Comic.

3. Moral—often animal fables.

4. Religious—legends.

E. Allegory.

Exercise I.

Classify each of the following, according to the table given on page 166.

1. Newspaper account of a fire.
2. Nineteen Beautiful Years.
3. Pilgrim's Progress.
4. A White Umbrella in Mexico.
5. Rip Van Winkle.
6. The Making of an American.
7. Silas Marner.
8. Miracles of Our Lady.
9. Treasure Island.
10. Farthest North.
11. *Æsop's Fables*.
12. Holinshed's Chronicles.
13. The Building of the Panama Canal.
14. The Story of the Lawrence Strike.
15. A Motor Flight through France.
16. The Charity Ball.
17. The Nomination of Taft.
18. A joke on me.
19. The Boyhood of Lincoln.
20. The Battle of Agincourt.
21. How I met Jack.

Though other forms may convince and sway the reason more, none is more powerful in its general effect than narrative. People laugh irresistibly at a funny story, and cry as inevitably at a pathetic one. A weird tale may cause a sleepless night or a gruesome one may cause a nervous attack lasting for hours. Is it any wonder, then, that nurses frighten children, that lawyers sway juries, that orators move legislatures, and that preachers win to repentance, by stories? Surely skill in this art is worth while.

PURPOSE

The purpose of story-telling is diverse, depending on the speaker, his aim, and the circumstances. Perhaps most of us think of stories as a source of amusement or entertainment. A good story-teller is likely to be popular. Who has not heard the oft-repeated request from a child, "Tell me a story!" The restless one becomes quiet, the pouter forgets his grievance, and the wakeful one approaches dreamland more quickly. It often enlivens conversation, and makes us more agreeable companions, as guests or as travelers, if we have a store of good anecdotes. Whoever addresses an audience finds it easier to obtain a hold if he has a story that will "take." Perhaps the speaker of the evening is late. The chairman must keep the waiting audience in good humor. Mr. Bryan once kept fifteen hundred people waiting two hours; but none left, for someone else entertained them. A speaker may find an apathetic or hostile body of hearers. A funny story, well told, will establish a mutual tolerance and interest that hold. If the discourse is serious or heavy, many hearers begin to grow restless or even sleepy. But a story will make them laugh and will revive the tired brain. After-dinner speakers sometimes do little else but tell stories, for they realize that their hearers are in the mood for relaxation, and will welcome the opportunity. Whatever the situation, a bit of apt, lively narrative makes a good beginning.

Though the first purpose may be entertainment, a deeper one is instruction. An illustrative story makes the meaning of a point clear, because it makes the idea vivid and concrete. The working of some rule may be shown. For instance, the story of a poor family who had saved money for years, only to be halted at Ellis Island, even though

the father had become a citizen, because a child had goiter, shows how a regulation just in the abstract may bring tragedy to some. The evils of conditions in factories or mines may be most forcibly brought home to the people ignorant of them by illustrative stories of individuals. The application of a principle may be made through an anecdote. Manners and customs of another country or a former age become far more vivid through a story of a Japanese or Eskimo boy, or a tale of Robin Hood. The religious or political feeling of a race or a period can be understood only through a concrete illustration of what real beings did and said and suffered. When we hear how thousands of Jews were massacred on the accusation of poisoning wells, how a child of the Ghetto was persecuted as was Mary Antin, how a slave mother was separated from her children and sent to New Orleans, how, in the Civil War, two brothers fought, one falling a victim to the other's sword, we understand situations otherwise incomprehensible.

In addition to illustration of conditions in various phases of life, narrative is important to convey **fact knowledge**. It is often necessary to tell clearly and concisely just what happened at a given time. An account of an accident or a fire or a crime must be put before the public ungarbled. The policeman, if he makes an arrest, must tell what he saw. The prisoner must be able to give the facts, if he is innocent, by telling what actually happened as he knows it. A witness in a trial is under oath to furnish an accurate account. At other times, the story of a man's life is important, to establish certain facts, or to form part of a record, or to support statements about what has been done or can be done. The chronicle of events is necessary to history, for history is being made all the time. And the

only way of informing succeeding generations of what their ancestors did, that they may avoid the mistakes and emulate the brave and worthy deeds, is to tell the stories of past ages, and of great lives.

Another purpose is that of arousing feeling, sometimes to create a favorable atmosphere, often to sway action. The keen lawyer knows the value of a pathetic story in securing acquittal, or, if told from another point of view, conviction. Speakers before a conference or legislative assembly may obtain the passage of a regulation or law by narrating the story of a child stunted, perhaps driven to crime, by bad working conditions. Preachers, too, can bring tears of pity or repentance by stories.

Henry Van Dyke, in the foreword to "The Ruling Passion," wrote, "Lord, let me never tag a moral to a story, nor tell a story without a meaning." Often, a simple, brief narrative will show better than many pages of moralizing what one's duty is under similar circumstances, or what reward or punishment must inevitably follow certain courses of action. In short, a good story is a record of life, whether it be told of a ruler of the people, of a child in the slums, of a petty incident on the street, or evolved from the brain of one who has seen life broadly and penetrated its inner secrets.

Since the most effective stories are often the simplest and most straightforward, you may wonder why we should study narration so carefully. As in every line of endeavor, "practice makes perfect." We do not become able to tell good stories, even if the material is the best, just on the impulse or at the need. You have all heard people spoil their stories and tire the listeners, only because they did not know how to tell them.

ELEMENTS

Whatever may be the kind of story, whatever the circumstances of its telling, there are certain elements that it must have, in some degree. It must have a **setting**, a **plot**, or series of connected happenings, unless it is of but one occurrence, **incident**, **characters**, **movement**, **interest**, and, sometimes, **conversation**.

By **setting** we mean the background of the action. This consists of the time, the places, and the circumstances. It is helpful to know the time for the sake of clearness, and for assistance in visualizing the characters. The knowledge of the place in which the action occurs also aids in completing the picture, and in preparing us for the incidents and the outcome. A story, the scenes of which are in California in the days of the gold discovery, is likely to have characters and incidents very different from those of a story of Newport in the first decade of the twentieth century. A story of Palestine in the first century must differ likewise from one of England in the time of Queen Elizabeth. Circumstances of great importance in determining the course of action or development of character may have existed before the opening of the story or at its beginning, or significant events may have occurred just previously. The fact that the Normans and Saxons were dwelling in England as peoples scarcely assimilated, the breach between Cedric and his son, and the crusade in which Wilfred had taken part, all contribute indispensable elements to the story of *Ivanhoe*. All of these, as they help in action, also give atmosphere, that intangible, vague something that envelops and harmonizes.

There are various methods of revealing the setting. Some prefer to state the exact year and town, in the open-

ing paragraph. Others mention events or scenes that give the clue. Characters may be introduced in conversation, telling what is necessary to an understanding of the situation. It is usually possible to put in touches here and there which, without blunt statements, indicate the background.

Exercise II.

Study the following examples, and also the beginning of each story on pages 178, 180, 182 to find out how the setting is indicated.

1. In the course of a December tour in Yorkshire, I rode for a long distance in one of the public coaches, on the day preceding Christmas.—IRVING. *The Stage Coach*.
2. One day last summer, my cousin and I started to walk to a neighboring village in the edge of the Catskills. We hadn't any real idea of the distance, but supposed it was just an ordinary afternoon walk.—*Student's Anecdote*.
3. One of the few incidents of Indian warfare naturally susceptible of the moonlight of romance was that expedition undertaken for the defense of the frontiers in the year 1725 which resulted in a well-remembered "Lovell's Fight." Imagination, by casting certain circumstances judicially into the shade, may see much to admire in the heroism of a little band who gave battle to twice their number in the heart of the enemy's country.—HAWTHORNE. *Roger Malvin's Burial*.
4. The sexton stood in the porch of Milford Meeting-House, pulling busily at the bell-rope. The old people of the village came stooping along the street. Children, with bright faces, tripped merrily beside their parents, or mimicked a graver gait, in the conscious dignity of their Sunday clothes.—HAWTHORNE. *The Minister's Black Veil*.
5. The neighborhood of San Lorenzo, near Santa Orsa, in Florence, was the favorite haunt of certain blind mendicants, who were in

the habit of rising early to take their respective rounds. Some took their station at the church of the Nunziata, some in St. Michael's Gardens, while others sang songs in the suburbs; all, however, agreeing to meet at St. Laurence's Bell to dine, after having made their morning calls; for the host of the said inn devoted himself wholly to the entertainment of gentlemen of their cloth. It happened that two of the party were sitting together one morning after taking some refreshment, talking over the state of their affairs.—FRANCO SACHETTI. *Novella CXL. Trans. by Roscoe.*

6. Edna is, you know, a public school teacher in an East Side school. The other day her class was restless, especially one mischievous little girl, Dora. Finally she gave them each a piece of drawing paper, and told them to draw what they wanted to.—*Student's Anecdote.*

7. After breakfast the first morning I was in Bethlehem, I thought I would take a pleasant walk, so I strolled off alone, first up one street, then down another, eager to explore this quiet little town. (The anecdote tells how she was lost, and unable to tell where she was staying, or what the house looked like.)—*Student's Anecdote.*

8. I suppose the New York papers told it all—I mean the accident to the Pennsylvania Limited. But of course you didn't know that I was on that train. It took us a long time to get near New York, because of the washouts, but toward the end we found matters improved. We were making fairly good time when, about dawn, the train slid down an embankment.—*Student's Narrative of Experience.*

Every narrative has a **theme**, or subject, which is the central idea of the story. If a child tells about something which frightened him, his theme is the fright which he received. A parent may tell a story with the theme of reward, in which the incidents and outcome show how some person gained through doing certain things. A striker speaking in a public meeting may tell the story of the hard

experiences of some fellow workman, which has as its theme the wrong of unjust wages or conditions. A teacher may give an account of some incident which has for its theme the opposition of the colonists to the Stamp Tax, or the feeling of the northerners or southerners in regard to slavery. Mrs. Stowe took the abuses of slavery as the theme of "Uncle Tom's Cabin." The principal theme of "Ivanhoe" may be considered the feud between Wilfred and the Templar, but some think the theme is the love story of Wilfred and Rowena, and others, that it is the overthrow of John's faction by Richard, or the relations between Saxons and Normans. In many novels there are several themes, but in most such cases one is the principal, and the others are subordinate to it.

The working out of the theme is the plot, or thread of action, which holds the interest. It consists, in a story of length sufficient to have a plot, of a series of incidents related by cause and result, though each incident may be a unit in itself. There must be a beginning, a crisis, or turning-point, and an ending.

The beginning is called the initial incident. Although this may depend on something that existed when the story opens, or that took place before, it is the first thing, actually happening after the scene is laid and the characters appear, which influences causally any later events. If there is a recital of something happening earlier, it is for introduction or greater clearness. Should a friend of yours, in telling you how he narrowly escaped burning to death, say, "I had fallen on the ice the week before, and sprained my ankle," you would understand at once that this was an explanation of circumstances that caused him to be in danger, but that it was not a part of the story he wanted to tell you.

From the initial incident there is an upward movement till one is reached that determines the outcome. Before that one, several endings might have been possible. But some little thing turns the scale so that the following incidents all tend to the inevitable. This point is called by some the **climax**; it must, as the structural climax, be distinguished from the emotional climax, or point of highest interest. Sometimes the two coincide.

After the turning point, the action continues through a less lengthy series of incidents to the outcome, sometimes called the **dénouement**, or, in the case of a tragic story, the **catastrophe**. We feel no special interest in what may happen later. The theme has been fully worked out, and it only remains to shuffle the mannikins off the stage.

A good plot has the great essentials of all composition. It has unity. There should be no digressions sufficient to distract from the central theme. If there are several plots, they should be so subordinated and interwoven as to form a unified whole. There should be coherence, obtained by a series of incidents without gaps in the causal connection, arranged in the natural order. Emphasis is necessary to vital interest and clear impression. Essential happenings must be selected for recital, not the everyday routine. The lives of people are determined by the moments, few and far between, when currents cross. Though character is built up or destroyed day by day, in the most ordinary circumstances, there are certain times when traits are revealed and long-cultivated principles are tested. These are the ones that must be recorded, and not hidden in a mass of irrelevant detail.

Exercise III.

Draw an equilateral triangle. Selecting any story or novel you have studied in class or read recently, write the

statement of the theme along the base. Indicate by short horizontal lines; naming the points on the other sides of the triangle, the initial incident, the incidents in the rising action, the turning point at the apex, the incidents of the falling action, and the outcome.

If there are several plots, draw waving lines, indicating the points of intersection, or connection.

Exercise IV.

Read a short story, such as Maupassant's *Diamond Necklace*, or one by Hawthorne, or Kipling, or O. Henry, or a magazine story suggested by the instructor. Tell the story of this in class, being careful to give setting and points necessary for clearness, and the incidents vital to the plot, without distorting the proportion or emphasis. Be prepared to state the initial incident, the turning point, and the outcome.

Exercise V.

Select some book or play that has several plot stories, such as *Ivanhoe*, *Silas Marner*, the *Merchant of Venice*, or *As You Like It*; tell the story of each plot separately; then tell the story of the whole, weaving the plots together.

Exercise VI.

Tell in about three minutes the plot of some novel you have recently read, making the setting, theme, and series of vital points clear.

Exercise VII.

Let the hearers be prepared to state as they understood them, the setting, theme, and vital points of the plots told as Exercise VI, and to point out where clearness or connection was lacking in the student's summary.

We have found that incidents are necessary to plot, since taken in connection they make up plot. Each incident,

though a link in a long chain, is complete in itself. It has setting, has a central idea, and has beginning, climax, and ending. It must have "point" to be interesting. A great many things happen that have no interest, that are not distinct from the ordinary routine, and that have no bearing on anything of importance. You do not want to weary people by telling these. One difference between a bore and a social success is that the latter has cultivated the power of selection.

Exercise VIII.

Reproduce an incident from a novel you have read in class.

Exercise IX.

Tell clearly the story of one of the following, with "The Treaty of Zanjon," given on page 178, as a model.

1. The Boston riot.
2. The Boston tea-party.
3. Paul Revere's ride.
4. The capture of Nathan Hale.
5. The capture of Major André.
6. The launching of the Clermont.
7. The arrest of John Brown.
8. Sheridan's ride.
9. The assassination of Lincoln.
10. The assassination of Garfield.
11. The assassination of McKinley.
12. The sinking of the Merrimac.
13. The killing of Becket.
14. How Bruce was saved by a spider.
15. The escape of Richard I. from prison.
16. The seizure of the Five Members.
17. The expulsion of the Long Parliament.

18. Some story from Roman history.
19. Some story of the Abolition movement in America.
20. A story of some incident of the suffrage movement in England.
21. Some story of a recent political campaign.
22. An incident of the Balkan war.
23. An incident of the Boer war.
24. A story of one of the Indian campaigns.
25. How some noted criminal was caught.
26. A story of the guerilla warfare in the Philippines.
27. A story of Clive in India.

THE TREATY OF ZANJON.

After Maceo became a major-general and Campos became Captain-General, and while preliminaries were being discussed at Zanjon, a meeting between them was arranged. Campos was very desirous of a conference with Maceo. He sent word that he was coming, and they met on the plain of Barragua. There were two royal palms of extraordinary size on this plain, landmarks throughout the country, well known to everybody. It was agreed the two generals should meet in the shade of these palms at noon, accompanied by their staffs. The place of meeting was selected by Maceo, at the request of the Captain-General.

Maceo's army was only a few miles away. The mulatto general arrived beneath the palm trees at noon, with an escort of thirty men. Raising his field glass he scanned the horizon, but could see nobody. Surprised that Campos did not keep his word, he dismounted and found the Captain-General seated and propped against one of the palms, fast asleep. Before this discovery Maceo had seen a horse tethered in a clump of bushes 200 yards away. It had borne Campos to the rendezvous. When the Spanish general opened his eyes, Maceo said: "Why, General, where is your staff?"

"Between gentlemen, on occasions like this," Campos gravely replied, "there is no need of witnesses."

It is possible that the Captain-General did not desire the pres-

ence of his staff, preferring that the conversation should be strictly confidential. Strangers are not the only ones dogged by Spanish spies. The Government itself maintains an espionage on all of its officers.

Describing the interview afterwards, Maceo said that never in his life did he feel more ashamed than when Campos remarked that gentlemen on occasions like this needed no witnesses. In reply the patriot said: "General, pardon me," and turning to his staff ordered them back several hundred yards. Among them was the noted negro commander, Flor Crombet, whose inflexible patriotism was sometimes sullied by atrocious acts. Maceo might justly be termed the Toussaint l'Ouverture of the insurrection and Crombet its Dessalines. Saluting Maceo previous to retiring, Crombet said: "General, I hope you know your duty."

To this remark Maceo responded: "Retire, and return at 3 o'clock."

Crombet referred to a law enacted by the Cuban government similar to the one now in force in Cuba. It provided for the shooting of any Spanish officer who approached a patriot general to treat for a surrender. In telling the story afterwards, Maceo said that he saw the devil in Crombet's eyes, and feared trouble.

At 3 o'clock the escort returned, but without Crombet. Quintin Bandera, the well-known negro general of the present war, came back with the escort and reported that on reaching the camp Flor Crombet had mustered his forces and departed. This reduced Maceo's army at least one-third. Fearful that Crombet meant mischief, and knowing his savage disposition, Maceo was afraid that Campos might be attacked on his return to his headquarters. He offered to escort him back to his staff, and the offer was accepted.

Crombet had really gone to ambuscade Campos and his escort. He planted the ambuscade at a point called Los Infiernos (Hell's Steps). When Campos reached his escort, Maceo shook hands with him and departed. He warily followed the Captain-General, however, until long after sunset. About 8 o'clock at night Campos was fiercely attacked by Crombet. The attack was stoutly resisted. Maceo closed up, on hearing the first shot, and vigorously defended

Campos, much to the astonishment of the latter. The assault was repelled, and the Captain-General returned to Alto Songo, Maceo accompanying him as far as Jarajuica.

Flor Crombet never rejoined Maceo. He afterwards disbanded his forces, reached the southern coast, and escaped to Jamaica. This story was told by Maceo to a friend while seated on a log on the plain of Barragua, near the two royal palms where Martinez Campos took his nap.

AMOS J. CUMMINGS. "Congressional Record."

Exercise X.

Note carefully the following incidents, as to setting, characters, interest. Good examples may be found in Mark Twain's *Speeches*.

1. Immediately after dinner last evening, a friend came to ask me to spend the evening at her home, as she was left alone.

While we were in the midst of a game of checkers, and the house was all in stillness, we heard a noise in her parents' bedroom. We slowly and carefully crept in, and there, in the dim light, saw a man standing behind the screen. Frightened dumb, we ran out into the hall just as my friend's father was returning, and repeated to him what we had seen. We all went noiselessly back into the room, our rescuer armed with a revolver.

Still a deathly silence prevailed. Through a half-open window a breeze blew the curtains back and forth and caused the light to flicker.

As we stood in the doorway, our hero murmured, "Where, where?"

"Behind the screen," we whispered, together.

To our astonishment, he burst into laughter, and removing the screen showed us a pair of shoes, which we had seen below the screen, and a hat hanging on a peg just high enough to show above.

Incident told by student.

2. One evening I was invited to a dinner out of town somewhere. The toastmaster introduced me as a paragon of wit and eloquence. He said I was the brightest and ablest orator America had produced;

that I was known from the Atlantic to the Pacific and that I was the most sought after public speaker since Demosthenes.

I knew I had to stop that quick. A hush fell over the audience that was appalling. The people stared with serious eyes and open mouths. But there was a fat, good-natured looking chap who sat near the guests' table. I marked him.

"Gentlemen," I said in a most serious tone, "I have attended many banquets. I have heard many toastmasters bestow unmerited encomiums upon speakers. I have heard fulsome flattery heaped upon undeserving heads, but I am glad to say that, at last, it is my pleasure to find a toastmaster who tells the absolute truth."

Not a smile greeted my remarks. There was a moment of dead silence. I knew all was lost unless something happened. An inspiration came to me and I gave a most terrific wink to my open-mouthed fat friend. His response was instantaneous. He exploded with a loud laugh. He was so pleased that I had taken him into my confidence—that to him alone I had revealed that I was only 'kidding,' that he roared. The crowd took his lead and all went well after that.

JOB HEDGES.

Exercise XI.

After reading *The Sinking of the Titanic*, on page 182, tell an incident based on one of the following. Give setting, lead up to the point of interest, make it clear, be concise. Do not give away the point at the beginning. If it is pathetic or comic, give the right atmosphere. Stop when you are through.

An incident you witnessed on the way to or from school.

An incident you saw on a train.

Something that happened during your vacation.

An interesting happening during your childhood.

An incident connected with your learning to skate, or to ride a wheel, or to run a motor car, or to sail a boat.

An incident in which some child of your family or acquaintance was the chief actor.

An incident involving your pet horse or dog or cat.

THE SINKING OF THE TITANIC.

I was on the deck. It was a clear night, and the stars were shining. It was very cold, although I saw no icebergs, and soon after 10 o'clock I went below to sleep.

A little before 12 o'clock I was awakened by a crash, although it did not seem a severe one. I jumped out of the berth, and soon heard one of the stewards calling out that there had been an accident; that it probably was not serious, but that the passengers as soon as possible should come on deck. I put on a fur coat over my night clothes and hurried out.

When I got to the top deck many people were there, but there was no panic, no confusion, no shouting. They were getting ready to launch the boats and there was some delay. The lifeboats were covered with canvas, and there were no knives to cut the lacing cords. So men took out their pen-knives and helped cut them away. The first boat, in which my sisters, Mrs. Cornell and Mrs. Appleton, were placed, was lowered with only fifteen or twenty in it. Then came the other boats. They were lowered somewhat below the deck level, the women were lifted over the rail, and then the men threw or dropped them into the bottom of the boats. The women did as they were told, for the most part, but some of them absolutely refused to leave their husbands. The men, lying magnificently, reasoned with them, saying there were other boats and that they would probably be as safe on the ship as in the lifeboats. The men were heroes, passengers as well as officers, and if there was cowardice I did not see it.

I remember particularly the behavior of John Jacob Astor. He was calm and intrepid, doing his full share in comforting and assisting.

But it was not only the men who were brave. I owe my life to a sacrifice made by Miss Elizabeth Evans, who is among the lost. When my turn was about to come in the boat that proved to be the last to leave, it was rapidly filled with more than fifty. Some one said that only one more could be taken. Miss Evans had the better claim, but she turned and said to me: 'You go; you are the mother

of children and I am not.' Then one of the sailors said there would be another boat, and I was carried over the rail and dropped in a heap in the boat's bottom. Miss Evans, I believe, did get in the next boat, but it was capsized in launching and she was not picked up.

The boat that followed, as I said, capsized, but a number of those aboard managed to reach us and were pulled in. There was an officer, and a stewardess whom I well remember for what she did afterward. A steerage passenger jumped in as we were going down to the water. There was no manning of the boat with a crew, and there were but three oars. Some one shouted to get away from the sinking ship or the suction would draw us down, but only one man, a cook, knew how to row until the stewardess began to help.

The water began to spurt in around the plugs in the bottom of the boat. It looked as if we should swamp, for with nearly sixty we were overloaded. The stewardess got us women to take off stockings and help plug the leaky places.

The most solemn thing that occurred was after we had left the ship and were away a little distance. The water had mounted so that it was well up beyond the first line of port holes. I looked back, and on the upper deck the band was playing. The stewards in their white clothes were along the rail, and they were singing hymns. The sight will never leave me, and I have heard that singing ever since.

After the boat went down came the greatest horror. For an hour and a half—I think it was that long—we heard agonized cries in the darkness from those that were trying to save themselves on wreckage. At first there were many voices, but gradually they lessened in number, and then there was stillness.

At dawn we saw the Carpathia approaching, and our boat was one of the first to be picked up. I watched the boats unload and it was not until the fifteenth that I knew that my sisters were saved.

Told by MRS. J. M. BROWN to a New York "Globe" Reporter.

Sometimes a narrative tells about the occurrences of a day, or of some trip. Someone may give an account of his doings during an absence. In order that the recital may

be interesting, an incident may be told with some detail. It is desirable to tell briefly about the start, relate rapidly the course followed, make the chief incident the center of interest, and conclude with the impression left on the mind. The chief thing to be avoided is the recital without climax of commonplace, uninteresting detail.

Exercise XII.

Give an account of one of the following. Be sure that it is worth telling:

A vacation journey.

A mountain climb.

An exciting ride.

A trip to the city.

How I went to my first circus.

How we spent Christmas at grandmother's.

A visit to a coal-mine.

A journey in the air.

Down the —— in a canoe.

A daring act.

A heroic rescue.

Exercise XIII.

Let others criticize the accounts given for Exercise XII, keeping the following questions in mind:

Was it interesting or not? Why?

Was it clear or vague? Why?

Were the order and emphasis good?

When things happen, there must be **characters** involved, who are affected by the events, or who are the actors in them. The story must therefore make clear who the persons are, and what kind of people they are. In order to make others understand why people act as they do, and

how they are likely to conduct themselves under certain circumstances, it is necessary to introduce them so that their acquaintance may be made, early in the story. If you look at the paragraphs on pages 172-173, which give setting, you will see that some also introduce character. Not until a person actually takes part in the action, or talks, just as he would on the stage, is he really made known to us, although other characters may have given some idea of him before. We have several ways of learning more about him. What does he do? What is his manner of doing things or of dealing with other people? What are the motives for his acts? So his own acts reveal him. But he is likely to talk, too. What he says, his way of saying it, and his purpose, all show what kind of man he is. Other people, having formed an opinion from these sources, often tell what they think of him, or relate instances showing his personality. Of course, the person who is telling a story is supposed to know the people he introduces so well that he can make comments showing the light in which he wishes to present the character.

Exercise XIV.

From a novel or story that you have read in class, cite good methods of introducing characters.

Give instances from short stories you have read in magazines.

Tell how someone whom you heard tell a good story introduced the characters.

Exercise XV.

In the same way cite instances which reveal character, giving at least one example of each: act, conversation between or about characters, and writer's or speaker's comment.

Exercise XVI.

Tell how you seek to give to an old friend or a member of the family an idea of someone you meet, or how you give a new acquaintance an idea of someone you wish him or her to know.

Try to trace the cause of your admiration or dislike or contempt for someone you know. When and how did it start? Has further acquaintance increased or lessened your first feeling?

Exercise XVII.

Tell an incident, either from your own experience in contact with another person, or from something you have witnessed, which clearly indicates some marked characteristic. An incident on a street car, in a department store, or in school, a street accident, and various others, may furnish material. Sometimes an anecdote of a child or a servant shows some trait.

Note the following examples. What traits are revealed? How?

1. This afternoon, just after I was seated in a pay-as-you-enter car on Eighth Avenue, a large, aggressive-looking colored woman boarded the car, and offered the conductor a bill.

"I can't change a five dollar bill," he exclaimed harshly. "Let the people in!"

Several crowded past, at the next corner. Then the woman returned to the siege. "You got to give me change," she urged, glaring at him.

"I tell you I won't," he persisted, with an oath. "You give me something smaller or get off the car!"

But the woman stood her ground, crowded into a corner of the platform while more people entered. As the conductor gave the starting bell a vicious jerk, she stepped toward him, shouting, "You're too fresh, you are," adding, with an abusive epithet, "I'll let you know I'm as good as you are, if my face is black. I'm a lady, I am." By this time everybody in the car was looking at

her. "I'll report you, I will. I guess you'll learn how to treat a lady!"

The conductor collected fares from another group of people, then, as he vehemently stamped the lever recording fares, drew change from several pockets and counted it into the woman's hand. She triumphantly marched to the front of the car, regardless of stares.

2. On the outskirts of Louisiana, Missouri, stand four immense sugar trees, which, if the Druidical religion were in vogue in the Mississippi Valley, would be set aside as objects of worship by Democrats. They form the corners of a rectangle about large enough for a speaker's platform. Beneath their grateful shadow, with the Father of Waters behind him, and the eternal hills in front of him, the blue sky above his head, in the presence of a great and curious concourse of people, Frank Blair made the first Democratic speech in Missouri after the close of the Civil War. Excitement was intense, and men of all shades of opinion abounded on every hand. When Blair arose to speak he unbuckled his pistol belt and coolly laid two navy revolvers on the table. He prefaced his remarks as follows.

"Fellow citizens, I understand that I am to be killed here to-day. I have just come out of four years of that sort of business. If there is to be any of it here, it had better be attended to before the speaking begins."

That calm but pregnant exordium has perhaps no counterpart in the entire range of oratory.

"There was silence deep as death,
And the boldest held his breath,
For a time."

He then proceeded with his speech, but had not been going more than five minutes when a man of gigantic proportions started toward him, shaking his huge fist and shouting: "He's an arrant rebel! Take him out. Take him out!" Blair stopped, looked the man in the face, crooked his finger at him, and said: "You come and take me out!" which put an end to that episode, for the man who was yelling "Take him out!" suddenly realized that Blair's index finger which was beckoning him on would soon be pressing

the trigger of one of those pistols if he did go on, and he prudently declined Blair's invitation.

From address by CHAMP CLARK at presentation of bust of Blair to the United States by Missouri. "World's Best Orations." Copyright by Ferd. P. Kaiser Publishing Company.

TECHNIQUE

When nine-volume novels were popular, possibly people were willing to listen to long stories, as they were to read them. But now, just as we all read the hundred-page novel and the short story, we want our friends to avoid long-windedness, and tell us a story rapidly. You doubtless know elderly people who start to tell something and then "get side-tracked" by trying to straighten out some doubtful point that really hasn't any connection with the story itself. A neighbor comes in and begins to tell something that happened to another neighbor.

"It was last Wednesday—or was it Tuesday?—that John came home. Yes, it must have been Tuesday, because I was baking my bread, and I had just opened the oven door to look at it, and I saw that I hadn't put the grate down as I always do, and the bread had burned. Well, as I was saying, it was Tuesday, and Maria came over to borrow my crêpe veil to wear to a funeral. Her brother-in-law over to Milton Center had died very unexpectedly, and she knew her sister would be offended if she didn't wear black. Well, she said she had heard that John was coming home that day," etc.

Naturally, the hearer is somewhat bewildered, and has lost interest in what did happen to John or his family.

A good story has **movement**. Things happen. The action proceeds swiftly, "gets somewhere." Most of the incidents must advance the plot, though some may be useful in showing character or atmosphere. The movement must be well proportioned, too, so that there is no lagging in one part

and crowding in another. Usually the latter part should move more swiftly than the first. People dislike to have the outcome held off too long.

In order to obtain smooth, steady movement, it is helpful to keep the **same point of view**, as far as possible. If this is not done it is difficult to keep the hearer's mind on the development. It is necessary to keep the **central idea** always in mind, allowing nothing that distracts from it, but causing every element to help in some way in the unfolding of the plot. It is easier to do this in biography, because one person is the center of interest, and others are brought in only as they affect his life and work. In history it is more difficult to keep all phases clearly before the hearer without the effect of jerkiness. Adherence to the natural time order helps in avoiding this in ordinary narrative.

Exercise XVIII.

Tell the story of some play that you have seen or read. Try to keep the same relative movement.

Exercise XIX.

Tell the story of one of the following:

1. The coming of the Armada to England.
2. One of the crusades.
3. Napoleon's return from exile.
4. Whitman's journey to Oregon.
5. How Stanley found Livingstone.
6. A journey overland to California in '49 (see "Century," 1892).
7. Peary's, or Amundsen's, or Scott's dash for the Pole.

Give an account of a fire.

Give an account of a game between your school and another.

Exercise XX.

Tell the story of a life, based on one of the following books, or some similar one that you have read. Make the narrative perfectly clear, as to subject, setting, and course of life. Observe proportion and keep the person who is the center of interest clearly before the hearer. Pass over unimportant details lightly, but emphasize critical points in the career.

Life of Alice Freeman Palmer.—G. H. PALMER.

Glimpses of Fifty Years.—FRANCES E. WILLARD.

Life of Samuel Johnson.—T. B. MACAULAY.

Life and Letters of Lord Macaulay.—G. O. TREVELYAN.

Life and Letters of Louisa M. Alcott.—EDNA CHENEY.

Oliver Cromwell.—THEODORE ROOSEVELT.

Life of Walter Scott.—A. LANG.

Life of Goldsmith.—W. IRVING.

Cæsar.—J. A. FROUDE.

Autobiography.—BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

Story of My Life.—HELEN KELLER.

Life of Nelson.—ROBERT SOUTHEY.

Whittier: Life and Letters.—S. T. PICKARD.

Nathaniel Hawthorne.—HENRY JAMES.

The Making of an American.—JACOB RIIS.

Theodore Roosevelt.—JACOB RIIS.

Life of Lincoln.—IDA M. TARBELL.

Up from Slavery.—BOOKER T. WASHINGTON.

The Promised Land.—MARY ANTIN.

Exercise XXI.

Give in class, in a two-minute talk, a sketch of the life of the author whose work you are now reading, or of one whose work you especially like, or of some statesman or ruler about whom you are reading in history, or of some scientist whose discoveries you are studying.

Be careful to make clear the parentage, environment, education, course of mature life, and important work.

Exercise XXII.

Perhaps some prominent man has just come to this country to travel, to give lectures, or to attend a conference. Possibly a noted man has just died, or is very ill. Some scientist may have made an important discovery. A statesman is much before the public because of some recent act or office-seeking. Give, in chapel or before the class, an account of his life, not more than five minutes in length. See page 249, Exercise XVI, for a talk supplementary to this.

Exercise XXIII.

Tell the life story of some boy or girl, or some person known to you, but not to the class, whose life seems to you of especial interest for some reason. Tell it so as to bring out the points that make it worth telling.

If we wish to keep the attention of the hearer, and cause him to want to hear the end, and then to look forward to another story, we must interest him, in spite of himself. The subject of the story should appeal to his previous interests. A child likes a fairy story, or one of olden times. The hero must loom large. The boy eagerly listens to stories of adventure, of daring, of winning one's way against odds. The girl may be more interested in stories of girl life or sentiment. People who lead commonplace lives often prefer tales of wealth and royalty. The student of history or customs turns with delight to a narrative that makes some remote period more vivid. The gay want bright, lively stories that end happily, but the serious may revel in tragedy.

Everybody wants to know how the story comes out. But there are developments to be awaited. The ending should not be disclosed before it is reached. Suspense may be kept up by various devices. There may be a mystery of some kind. Possibly someone is in disguise. One character

may be under a false impression. There may be several possible outcomes. Each incident must have some interest in itself, as to its outcome. It must look forward to another.

The environment, and the manners and customs of the people, may be so portrayed as to be of great interest. The place may be a quaint old town, or one in a strange land. The inhabitants may be peculiar, or have ways unfamiliar to most people. The individuals perhaps have some striking characteristics. If you begin to tell the story of a miser or a hermit or a mighty hunter or a sailor, it attracts attention, because these characters are unusual, unfamiliar to everyday life.

The element of probability must be considered in modern accounts. If a thing is regarded as impossible the hearers scoff at it. There must be some analogy to what is already known. The actions and events must be in harmony with the rest of the story, and with the characters. It is impossible for characters of strongly marked types to act in ways foreign to their instincts and traditions. Preparation for events, by suggestion of their possibility, or by emphasis on traits of character, or by making a certain course possible, leads the hearer to accept what might otherwise be rejected. The narrator should work steadily toward the end, leading to it carefully and surely.

Narrative appeals not so much to cold reason as to the emotions. Some people want to laugh or cry over every story. They want to be taken out of their ordinary thoughts and associations, and to think of these beings as real, as people whom they might see in the flesh at any time. Humor and comedy may find a place even in the saddest story. In *Hamlet* the grave-diggers' scene is comic. In *Macbeth* the porter's scene, just after the murder, is laughable. That is like human life. The comic and the

pathetic are frequently mingled. A touch of pathos can be introduced in almost any story, whether of a real person or a creature of the brain. Sympathy leads to interest. So an incident or the portrayal of a condition that shows injustice arouses feeling, and the hearer is anxious to know whether it was overcome. Anything that arouses feeling will increase interest.

Another element is **vividness**. People are most interested in what they see. They must, then, be made to visualize what is told them. Description of characters or scenes may be introduced. Some explanation may help in affording clearness. Lack of it does not always increase, but may deaden, interest. Conversation often enlivens an otherwise tedious tale. It also helps make the situation clear and reveals character. It may advance the plot by inducing action.

Exercise XXIV.

Give an account of some conversation heard in a public place, which reveals character or tells a story.

Exercise XXV.

Let two girls or two boys engage in conversation before the class, in such a way as to give the story, by question and answer, of some happening.

See also topics for conversations on pages 332, 346, 351.

Exercise XXVI.

After reading and criticizing the outlines on pages 194-196, plan a short story, to take five or six minutes or less, on a theme similar to those suggested on page 197. Ask yourself the following questions: Is the theme one that will interest my audience? Is it not trivial? Is it too big? Can I treat it adequately?

Has the plot interest? Has it sufficient body? Are the incidents causally connected? What marks the beginning, the turning-point, the ending? Are the incidents in themselves significant? Does the plot move? Is it probable? Is there sufficient suspense?

What is the setting? What method shall I use to indicate it? Can I tell the story better in the first or third person? Which will give most vividness and verisimilitude? Which will necessitate the least indirect statement? Which gives widest range?

How shall characters be introduced? How portrayed? How disposed of when not wanted?

What methods can I use to increase interest and suspense? What devices may add interest or solve difficulties? How can I prepare the hearer for a startling outcome?

OUTLINES FOR STORIES TOLD IN CLASS

THE ADVENTURE OF THE PERSONS BOYS

I. Setting.

- A. Time: autumn, a few years ago.
- B. Place: a farm in the prairie district of Kansas.

II. Theme.

The Adventure of the Persons boys with a pack of wolves.

III. Characters.

A. Major.

- 1. Mr. Persons.
- 2. His son, Will.
- 3. His son, Kane.

B. Minor.

- 1. Mrs. Persons.
- 2. Mike O'Brien, a neighbor.
- 3. Captain Vickory, a neighbor.
- 4. Ned Smith, the rural mail man.

IV. Plot.

A. Introduction.

1. Antecedent incidents.

- a. Mr. Persons promised the boys that they could go to the circus if they finished cutting the corn.
- b. They failed to do this, owing to the fact that the father had lent the large wagon box to neighbor Vickory for a wolf trap.

2. Existing circumstances.

- a. The boys have been kept at home.
- b. The boys are angry and dissatisfied.

B. Initial incident: they set fire to the nut grove.

C. Rising action.

1. O'Brien's report to their father.
2. Their flight from home.
3. Hearing the wolves.
4. Flight through high corn.

D. Turning point: Kane's fall against the wagon box.

E. Falling action.

1. Escape into overturned wagon box.
2. Discovery by hunters.
3. Return home.

F. Outcome.

1. Father's forgiveness.
2. Content restored.
3. Visit to circus next day.

Student's plan.

THE INTRUDERS

I. Setting.

- A. Time: summer evening and morning following.
- B. Place: country house with terrace, in woods.

II. Theme: adventure with intruders.

III. Characters.

- A. The young mistress, Lillian Young.
- B. Her guests.
 - 1. Jean.
 - 2. Florence.
 - 3. Edward.
- C. The maid, Ida.
- D. Officers.
 - 1. Policeman.
 - 2. Constable.

IV. Plot.

A. Introduction.

- 1. Lillian has been left alone.
- 2. She invites Jean and her brother, Edward, and Florence, to spend the night.

B. Initial incident: on the way to Lillian's, the three meet two suspicious looking men.

C. Rising action.

- 1. After dinner Lillian hears a noise in cellar.
- 2. In a short time Jean hears a box fall.
- 3. As Lillian calls Ida to question her, Edward hears a low whistle.
- 4. Edward turns off lights.
- 5. Lillian and Florence run up-stairs for a revolver.
- 6. The maid and Jean get canes.

D. Climax: as they peer from the window, they see two crouching figures at side of house.

E. Falling action.

- 1. Edward telephones to the police office in the village.
- 2. After what seems a long wait, the policeman and constable are seen coming up the road on bicycles.
- 3. As these approach, the two men run to rear terrace and slide down.
- 4. Girls beg policeman to remain on guard.

F. Conclusion.

1. When the parents return next day, they search and find case of wine in cellar upset and bottles missing.
Student's plan.

SUGGESTED TITLES

The Hunter hunted.	An Unexpected Guest.
The Eagle's Nest.	An Exciting Adventure.
Making the Goal.	Our Encounter with a Burglar.
Filling the Captain's Place.	Under Orders.
The Race against Time.	Lost on the Mountain.
In the Path of the Flood.	Adrift on the Bay.
At the Post of Danger.	Captive on a Ship.
Loyal to serve.	The Masquerader.
The Fire-signal.	An Amateur Detective.
How Graham won the Block Letter.	The Engineer's Last Trip.
The Contest for the Medal.	How Tony was Inspected.
Following the Trail.	The Fate of an Easter Bonnet.
	How Mary adopted Parents.

Exercise XXVII.

Let the class discuss a number of the plans, as to good and bad qualities.

Exercise XXVIII.

Let each pupil suggest two or three subjects. Let the class discuss possibilities, as to setting, plot, and interest.

Exercise XXIX.

Let several tell before the class the stories based on the plans of Exercise XXVI. Let all be prepared to answer the following: How did you like the story? Why? Was it interesting? Why? How was the interest kept up? Was the setting effective? Was the theme made clear? Was the plot clear, well put together, well proportioned? Could the crucial points be distinguished? Was the order confused? Was the ending forced or too abrupt or too long drawn out?

CHAPTER VI

DESCRIPTION

PURPOSE

You have found that, in order to make narrative clear, vivid, and interesting, it is sometimes necessary to tell how people or places look. When we do this we tell such points about the appearance as to cause the hearer to see with his mind's eye what we saw with the physical eye: that is, we present a word picture so vividly that the hearer gets the same effect as if he saw a portrait or a photograph.

Description differs from narration in that it presents, not a series of happenings continuing, but a view of some scene, or some person or thing, at a given moment, as a photograph, not a moving picture film, would record it.

CLASSIFICATION

There are two kinds of description, one according to method and the other according to purpose. The **exact** or **scientific description** gives minutely the details necessary for recognition or classification of a person, animal, plant, or object. Measurement, in feet and inches, color, exact form and size of parts, must be given, as well as any characteristics of appearance that will help in identification.

Exercise I.

Study the following to find out what is necessary in such descriptions:

1. Reward—For arrest of escaped convict, thirty-five years old, five feet eight inches in height, left shoulder lower than right, shuffling gait, short black hair, blue eyes, set far apart, low brow, hands short and thick with bruised nails, speech halting and ungrammatical.

2. The king or horseshoe crab, full grown, is two feet long. The last segment of the abdomen forms a long, sharp spine. The cephalothorax is broad, shaped like a horse's foot; the feet are arranged about the mouth. The abdomen bears six pairs of broad swimming feet, all except the first having on the under side a set of about one hundred respiratory leaves or plates.

Exercise II.

Suppose that your small brother, your grown sister, or your aged grandfather is lost. Describe him or her as you would to the man in charge at the police station from which you want an alarm sent out.

Exercise III.

You have seen an unfamiliar flower. Describe it so that your teacher of botany or a classmate who is studying botany can tell you what it is. A small animal or an insect may be chosen instead.

Exercise IV.

You have seen, on a neighboring farm, some domestic animal or fowl of a breed not known to you. Describe it so that your father or some boy in your class can tell you to what breed it belongs. Note carefully what differentiates it from those familiar to you.

Exercise V.

A friend of yours, unknown to the rest of the family, is to arrive by train. Describe the person so that your father, who is to meet him, will recognize him.

Though the exact description is useful in tracing people or in determining a class, the **artistic description** is most used in ordinary speech. You wish to tell your parents or friends how some building looks, where you spend much time, or which you have recently seen. You want to tell how a certain room pleased you, or why you were delighted with a view, or why the place where you spent the summer was so attractive. If your best friend is unknown to your family or to some other friend, or you see a strange-looking person on the street, you want to be able to give a good idea of him. Should you take a trip, or go to a ball game, the interest of your account will be heightened if you can describe some exciting scene. If you are speaking before a body of people a vivid description will not only heighten interest, but will arouse your audience to laughter, sympathy, or indignation. So it may be used in a speech that is, as a whole, narration, explanation, or argument.

In most instances we do not deliberately choose the **subject**, as does a painter, but find it ready to hand. Sometimes, however, we must select. Then there are several things to consider. Do we know it well enough to reproduce the picture for another? Is it interesting, or will it only bore the unfortunate hearer? Has it any unusual features that would inevitably attract attention? Can it be described in words? Is the subject suited to the purpose of presentation?

METHOD

The first thing necessary is to give an idea of your own position, as you saw the object. You could not see the whole of it at once, so you must indicate your relation to it. First, some idea of the general setting may be helpful. Then your point of view may be briefly indicated. If you

stood at the front, or diagonally across the street, or on a height near by, your position shows the angle at which you saw the object or scene. The hearer is then able to visualize it in the same relation.

It is then well to give a general idea of the object, so that the hearer may have a basis for the structure he builds mentally according to your details. This is called the **fundamental image**. What do you notice first about a building, for instance? Probably its form or size, whichever differs most from others near, will be stamped on your retina first. The color is likely to make a vivid impression, too. After these three distinguishing features others are gradually made evident to the senses and by them to the mind. The senses, although they record physically many things at once, do not enable the mind to grasp all at the same instant.

Of course, you cannot see the interior from your point of view. But you may, by entering, shift your point of view. You will now become aware that you see a very different picture, as to general outlines, from that seen by someone already within the room. Moreover, you realize that the other person has a mental attitude unlike yours. If you enter a schoolroom, and take your seat with other pupils, you find within your range of view a certain portion of a rectangular room, with a desk in the foreground, at which sits a teacher. Other details soon become clear. You think of it as a place where you recite, or write at the board. The teacher sees a portion of the room that has a different background, with windows in a different relative position, a room full of animated boys and girls, to whom she is talking. To her the room seems poorly equipped if it has few blackboards—a different mental point of view from yours. So we must distinguish the physical and mental viewpoints. An interior is likely to make a general impression on you

of comfort or the opposite, of good taste, of luxury or plainness, of spaciousness or stuffiness.

The contents of a room have definite relation to each other. Which article strikes the attention first? Is it prominent because of its nature or position? Because of the multiplicity of objects a clear order must be observed in mentioning them.

Exercise VI.

Study the following according to these suggestions: What is the point of view? What makes up the first image? What details complete the picture? Could any of them be left out?

1. Through all this petty tumult, which kept beguiling one's eyes and upper strata of thought, it was delightful to catch glimpses of the grand old architecture that stood around the square. . . On one side there was an immense edifice devoted to public purposes, with an antique gallery, and a range of arched and stone-mullioned windows, running along its front; and by way of entrance it had a central Gothic arch, elaborately wreathed around with sculptured semicircles, within which the spectator was aware of a stately and impressive gloom. Though merely the municipal councilhouse and exchange of a decayed country town, this structure was worthy to have held in one portion of it the parliament-hall of a nation, and, in the other, the state apartments of its ruler.

From *The Marble Faun*, by HAWTHORNE.

2. We turned down lanes bestrewn with bits of chips and little hillocks of sand, and went past gas-works, rope-walks, boat-builders' yards, shipwrights' yards, ship-breakers' yards, caulkers' yards, riggers' lofts, smiths' forges, and a great litter of such places, until we came out upon the dull waste I had already seen at a distance; when Ham said, "Yon's our house, Mas'r Davy!"

I looked in all directions, as far as I could stare over the wilderness, and away at the sea, and away at the river, but no house could

I make out. There was a black barge, or some other kind of superannuated boat, not far off, high and dry on the ground, with an iron funnel sticking out of it for a chimney and smoking very cosily; but nothing else in the way of a habitation that was visible to *me*.

"That's not it?" said I, "that ship-looking thing?"

"That's it, Mas'r Davy," returned Ham.

If it had been Aladdin's palace, roc's egg and all, I suppose I could not have been more charmed with the romantic idea of living in it. There was a delightful door cut in the side, and it was roofed in, and there were little windows in it; but the wonderful charm of it was, that it was a real boat which had no doubt been upon the water hundreds of times. . . .

It was beautifully clean inside, and as tidy as possible. There was a table, and a Dutch clock, and a chest of drawers, and on the chest of drawers there was a tea-tray with a painting on it of a lady with a parasol, taking a walk with a military-looking child who was trundling a hoop. The tray was kept from tumbling down, by a Bible; and the tray, if it had tumbled down, would have smashed a quantity of cups and saucers and a teapot that were grouped around the book. On the walls there were some common colored pictures, framed and glazed.—There were some hooks in the beams of the ceiling, the use of which I did not divine then; and some lockers and boxes and conveniences of that sort, which served for seats and eked out the chairs. From *David Copperfield*, by DICKENS.

3. I visited one of these khans now standing, and looking just as in Christ's time. We rode in under the arched entrance and dismounted. We found the building of stone and around an open square without roof. The building is more than two thousand years old. It is two stories high. In the center are camels, horses, and mules. Caravans halt here for the night or during a long storm. The open square is large enough to accommodate a whole herd of cattle, a flock of sheep, or caravan of camels. The neighboring Bedouins here find market for their hay, straw, and meats. Off from this center there are twelve rooms for human habitation. The only light is from the door. I went into one of these rooms and found a woman cooking the evening meal. There were six

cows in the same room. On a little elevation there was some straw where the people sat and slept when they wanted to rest. It was in a room similar to this that our Lord was born.

From *Sermons on the Holy Land*, by T. DEWITT TALMAGE.

4. He moved through the dark room with perfect ease, struck a match, lighted a taper and went swiftly and softly about. He touched the taper to one candle after another,—they seemed to be everywhere,—and won from the dark a faint twilight, that yielded slowly to a growing mellow splendor of light.

The lines of the walls receded as the light increased, and the raftered ceiling drew away, luring the eyes upward. I rose with a smothered exclamation on my lips and stared about, snatching off my hat in reverence as the spirit of the place wove its spell about me. Everywhere there were books; they covered the walls to the ceiling, with only long French windows and an enormous fireplace breaking the line. Above the fireplace a massive dark oak chimney-breast further emphasized the grand scale of the room. From every conceivable place—from shelves built for the purpose, from brackets that thrust out long arms among the books, from a great crystal chandelier suspended from the ceiling, and from the breast of the chimney—innumerable candles blazed with dazzling brilliancy. I exclaimed in wonder and pleasure as Bates paused, his sorcerer's wand in hand.

From *The House of a Thousand Candles*, by MEREDITH NICHOLSON. Copyright, 1905. Used by special permission of the publishers, The Bobbs-Merrill Co.

Exercise VII.

Select one of the following, or one suggested by the instructor, or a notable building with which you are familiar. Look at it carefully, from a fixed position, or study a picture of it. What do you notice first? When you have formulated the fundamental image for yourself, decide whether there is anything unusual about it. Look at it long enough so that you feel you have a vivid mental picture. Try closing your eyes and reviewing the points necessary to make the picture clear, or turn your back and write down

the points in order. Then look again to verify your memory. If you do not have to change the points you can probably repeat them to another so that he will be able to reproduce your mental picture. Describe the building before the class.

The school building.

A church.

The town hall, or courthouse.

The public library.

A notable mansion.

A peculiar house, perhaps very old.

A business building. The Flatiron, Woolworth, and Metropolitan buildings in New York are excellent examples.

A bank.

A hospital.

The railway station.

Some public monument, such as Grant's Tomb, the Garfield Memorial, The Bunker Hill Monument.

Some important building you have seen in another city.

Exercise VIII.

Let other members of the class try to reproduce the picture by drawing on the board or writing a description based on the speaker's.

Exercise IX.

Describe an open interior or a room in the building you took as your subject in Exercise VII on page 204.

Exercise X.

Describe clearly one of the following:

A piece of statuary in your school or in some public building.

A piece of machinery. Be careful to give a picture, not an account of how it is constructed.

A clock.

An antique table, cabinet, or other piece of furniture.

A large vase.

A dress displayed in one of the fashionable shops, or one of old style, an heirloom or one exhibited in a museum.

A suit of armor in the museum.

Sometimes we see so many things from one position that it is impossible to convey every detail to someone else in words. Just as we **select details** in narrative, we must in description. We pick out those that we have noticed because we could not help it. We mention them in the order in which they naturally appeared to us. In looking at a large scene, we find that, though there is a first image that includes altitudes, color, and the general nature of the view, there is some center of attention, to which other features are subordinate. We often see the background before we see the part nearest.

Exercise XI.

In the following, what is the fundamental image, the center of interest, the background? What details are included? What left to imagination? What impression is left?

The procession has now come to the brow of Olivet. Magnificent prospect! reaching out in every direction—vineyards, olive groves, jutting rocks, silvery Siloam, and above all, rising on its chain of hills, this most highly honored city of all the earth. Jesus Christ, there in the midst of the procession, looks off and sees here fortressed gates, and yonder the circling wall, and here the towers blazing in the sun, Phæsælus and Mariamne. Yonder is Hippion, the king's castle. Looking along in the range of the large branch of that olive tree, you see the mansion of the merchant prince. Through this cleft in the limestone rock you see the palace of the richest trafficker in all the earth. He has made his money by selling Tyrian purple. Behold now the Temple! Clouds of smoke lifting from the shimmering roof, while the building rises up—beautiful,

grand, majestic, the architectural skill and glory of the earth, lifting themselves there in one triumphant doxology of frozen prayer of all the nations.

From *Sermons on the Holy Land*, by T. DEWITT TALMAGE.

Exercise XII.

Study the following for the difference between description and exposition (see also page 224):

1. From the top of Notre Dame, Montreal, is certainly to be had a prospect upon which, but for his fluttered nerves and trembling muscles and troubled perspiration, the traveler might well look with delight, and, as it is, must behold with wonder. So far as the eye reaches it dwells only upon what is magnificent. All the features of that landscape are grand. Below you spreads the city, which has less that is merely mean in it than any other city of our continent, and which is everywhere ennobled by stately civic edifices, adorned by tasteful churches, and skirted by full-foliaged avenues of mansions and villas. Beyond it rises a beautiful mountain, green with woods and gardens to its crest, and flanked on the east by an endless fertile plain, and on the west by another expanse, through which the Ontario rushes, turbid and dark, to its confluence with the St. Lawrence. Then these two mighty streams, commingled, flow past the city, lighting up the vast champaign country to the south, where upon the utmost southern verge, as on the northern, rise the cloudy summits of far-off mountains.

From *Our Silver Wedding Journey*, by WILLIAM DEAN HOWELLS.

2. The Santa Fé Railroad makes connections at Milano, Texas, with the International, and that road passing through Austin and San Antonio connects with the Mexican National at Laredo. The Mexican National is the main line to Monterey, the most American of the Mexican cities, situated only 168 miles from the Rio Grande. Saltillo, the capital of Coahuila, one of the richest mining states, San Luis Potosi, one of the richest cities of the republic, Toluca, the progressive capital of the state of Mexico, these are the main cities on this line between Monterey and the city of Mexico. The

trip from the border to the capital traverses every variety of country from plain to valley and mountain. Among the principal large cities near the City of Mexico may be named Guadalajara, in the west central portion, one of the prettiest cities to be found anywhere. Aguas Calientes, named for the hot springs there; Guanajuato, which is noted for having one of the largest silver mines, one of the handsomest theaters and the largest collection of mummies to be found on the continent, and Cuernavaca, just south of the City of Mexico, always of interest to tourists because of the private residence of Cortez, and now becoming famous as a health resort. Popocatapetl, one of the tallest peaks on this hemisphere, is seen to advantage from the Cuernavaca road.

From *Second Visit to Mexico*, by W. J. BRYAN.

Exercise XIII.

Describe one of the following, with care as to point of view, first image, selection and arrangement of details, and general impression. Do the first impression or any details remind you of anything? How can you most clearly convey to the audience your own mental picture?

A village in which you have lived or which you have visited.

A view from the piazza of a summer hotel, or from a window.

View from the top of a high building or tower, or a high bridge.

View from a steamer coming into port.

View from a carriage on a country road.

View from a mountain-top.

Exercise XIV.

Describe some spot, such as a forest scene, a small lake or bay, with surroundings, or brook or river scene, which might attract a tired city dweller for a day. Some parts of large city parks afford such scenes.

A few pages back you saw an exact description by which a person might be recognized. But ordinarily you wish to give an idea of someone in such a way that the hearer's

imagination is aroused and assisted. Nobody cares whether your friend is exactly five feet six inches in height, but if he is very small or unusually large, or has any **general characteristics of appearance** that would attract immediate attention, those points should be given. Everyone looks so different from most other people that he is at once recognized by his acquaintances, even when suddenly met on the other side of the globe, after several years. A traveler on an ocean steamer heard a voice speak her name, and turned to find a young woman whom she had not seen for four years, and of whom she probably had not thought half a dozen times in that period. Yet she called her by name, and placed their former association at once. Like recognitions have occurred after many years, when neither had reason to suppose the other within many miles. Many persons can recognize even in other places those whom they have met but once. At a fancy dress ball many of the guests can be recognized in spite of the change in clothes. Noted criminals have been arrested when in complete disguise, with hair dyed, scars simulated, gait studied, or deformity pretended. What peculiarities, modeling of features, or traits of manner, expression, or speech make up this marvelous **individuality**?

When you are introduced to someone, what do you notice first? What do you recall an hour afterward? When your attention is attracted by a person entering the car, what is the cause? If you involuntarily turn to look after a passer-by, why do you? Afterward, what details can you easily remember? What left with you the impression of culture or boorishness, of gaiety or suffering, of buoyancy or weariness, of good nature or brutality, of good character or bad? Are you frightened, amused, or curious?

It is probably true, in the case of human beings, that

first impressions are the most lasting. They may be mistaken ones, but sometimes a dislike acquired during the first five minutes of association remains for many years. How do we gain such impressions? Why did you resolve at once that you did not want to sit with a certain student, though you immediately tried to win the friendship of another? One may be just as healthy, well featured, well dressed, and courteous as another; and yet there may still be a repulsion from one. As we grow older, our mental attitudes, our habits, and our characters become more firmly and undisguisably stamped on our appearance. But how? What reveals to us these things in others?

When we have answered these questions, perhaps we shall see what is necessary for us to portray in order to give a third person a picture. You may have read Hawthorne's story of the *Prophetic Pictures*. The artist saw in the faces something that others could not see. Yet it was there, tending to the inevitable. To us, few things are of more value than to be able to read the characters of those we meet. With that power many lives would have been saved misery and ruin. So may it not be worth while to study the revelation of personality and character?

But, in describing people for others, we should be careful not to confuse statements of our opinion of them with the details of the picture. We should let the figure stand revealed through itself, not through our comment based on rumor or previous knowledge.

Exercise XV.

Study the following as to fundamental image, differentiating points, order of details, details suggesting character, and main impression.

1. And once looking out, I saw all up and down the street, in every window I could see, just the same mass of eager faces behind the

windows. Those faces were all concentrated on a certain figure, a farmerlike, sunburned man who stood, roughly clothed, with his hands behind him, speaking to no one, looking nowhere in particular; waiting, so far as I could see, for nothing, with broad shoulders and heavy muscles, and the head of a hero above. Such a brow, such massive formation, such magnificent black eyes, such straight black eyebrows I had never seen before.

That man, it appeared, was Daniel Webster! I saw people go along the street sidling past him, looking up at him as if he were the Statue of Liberty Enlightening the World in New York harbor.

From a lecture on *Oratory* by T. W. HIGGINSON. "Public Speaking," by Irvah L. Winter.

2. There were very few negroes among the reconcentrados. Indeed, but one black in the throes of death from starvation was seen. This was at Matanzas. The party was returning to the city from a visit to a hospital in its outskirts. While crossing a stone bridge over the river, we saw something like an overturned iron statue below, on the sward of the bank. It was the skin and bone of a gigantic negro, entirely nude. He was in the last agonies of starvation. He lay partly upon his side in the hot sun, with knees crooked and head upon his left arm. When we leaned over the parapet and addressed him, he made no reply and showed no sign of life. A moment afterwards a buzzard swooped over him, fanning his shrunken shank with its wings. And still no sign of life was shown. Again we shouted from the parapet, but the figure remained motionless. Suddenly the head was raised and the long, bony right arm moved in a feeble effort to scratch the naked thigh.

From speech on *The Situation in Cuba* by AMOS J. CUMMINGS. "Congressional Record," July 13, 1898.

3. Tall and apparently endowed with much vigor of body, his presence was noble and his appearance prepossessing. In later years, the first peculiarity which caught the eye, as Burke walked forward, as his custom was, to speak in the middle of the House, were his spectacles, which, from shortness of sight, seemed never absent from his face. His dress, though not slovenly, was by no

means such as would have suited a leader of fashion. He had the air of a man who was full of thought and care, and to whom his outward appearance was not of the slightest consideration. But, as a set-off to this disadvantage, there was in his whole deportment a sense of personal dignity and habitual self-respect. They who knew how amiable Burke was in his private life, and how warm and tender was the heart within, might expect to see these softer qualities depicted on his countenance. But they would have been disappointed. It was not usual at any time to see his face mantling with smiles; he decidedly looked like a great man, but not like a meek or gentle one. All his troubles were impressed on his working features, and gave them a somewhat severe expression, which deepened as he advanced in years, until they became to some observers unpleasantly hard. The marks about the jaw, the firmness of the lines about the mouth, the stern glance of the eye, and the furrows on the expansive forehead, were all the sad ravages left by the difficulties and sorrows of genius, and by the iron which had entered the soul.

MACKNIGHT.

4. A flying figure covered the little distance in a dozen graceful leaps, snatched the child from the young man's hands, and stood, one foot advanced, breast heaving, a palpitating, wild thing, like a symbol of defiance.

The girl belonged distinctly to the more attractive type; it required but little imagination to endow her with real beauty. Her figure was straight and slim and well proportioned, her eyes large, her face oval, and quite devoid of that broad, high-cheeked stupidity so common in the northern races. At the moment she flashed like a brand with quick-breathed anger and fear.

Dick looked at her first with amazement, then with mingled admiration and mischief.

From *The Silent Places* by STEWART EDWARD WHITE.

Exercise XVI.

You have a friend or acquaintance not known to other members of your family, or to the class. Tell how he or she looks.

Exercise XVII.

You saw on the car, or met on the street, a person who attracted your attention, and made a definite impression on you. Describe this person to the class.

Exercise XVIII.

You cannot remember the name of some acquaintance who is known to the person to whom you are talking. Describe him or her in such a way that the hearer can distinguish the subject from others belonging to the same circle.

Exercise XIX.

Describe without name some person known to some other members of the class, and let someone identify the subject.

Sometimes a person belonging to a certain class is known by the **marks of the type** as well as individual characteristics. Some nationalities can be distinguished in an instant, because the members all have certain likenesses. You see a postman, a fireman, a policeman, and think of him as one of a body, because of the common attire and manner. Those who follow the same occupation or profession, though extremely individual, may in some ways be typical. Most people are able to recognize a clergyman, a physician, or a teacher.

Exercise XX.

See whether you can pick out, on the cars, people who apparently belong to certain classes: the prosperous business man, the schoolgirl or boy, the teacher, the laboring man.

Exercise XXI.

Describe such a person to the class, letting the members name the type, or describe a soldier, sailor, policeman, post-

man, fireman, nun, deaconess, nurse, priest, monk, subway guard, conductor, beggar, or any other type, so that the hearers can classify the person described.

Be careful not to make this a general, expository account, but reproduce a picture of the person in a characteristic position.

Animals, too, though they are more clearly classified into species than are human beings, have, in many instances, individuality. Several years ago a horse was stolen from a hotel shed in Schenectady, New York. The police failed to trace it. Some months afterward the owner was sitting by a window and saw his horse driven past. He followed, claimed the animal, and learned finally the circumstances of the theft and sale. If your dog were stolen you could identify it among many.

Exercise XXII.

Make a list of the ways in which a horse, dog, cat, cow, or other familiar animal may differ from another of the same species, and from the same breed.

Exercise XXIII.

Describe one of your pets, or an animal on the farm, in such a way that its individuality is shown. If it has distinctive habits or manners, show it in action.

Exercise XXIV.

Describe some animal you saw at a fair, a circus, or in the zoölogical gardens.

You will easily see that the choice of effective words has much to do with the vividness and effect of a description. You have probably all heard people talk "like a book." You are annoyed with that kind of expression, because it seems formal, stilted, and unnatural. The effec-

tiveness of direct speech often depends on its entire naturalness. Simple, short words are best. Sometimes comparisons help to make an impression vivid, if they are not long drawn out. The common expressions, "black as a crow," "a face like a full moon," "bright as a dollar," have become hackneyed, but they illustrate the method. If you can introduce a concise comparison that is unusual, but marked, you will make an impression. We have heard quite enough about azure or violet eyes, but that is no reason why we should cease to appeal to the sense of color. Lowell, in his description of June, appeals to feeling and hearing. Many words suggest touch or sound, such as *rough*, *sharp*, *corrugated*, *sizzling*, *gushing*, *titter*, *strident*. Even such words as *lofty*, *dwarfed*, *lean* call to mind whole figures. It must be remembered that most words mean little or much according as they have meager or vivid associations. Many words suggest effect, such as *bedraggled*, *decisive*, *breathless*, *calm*, *pitiful*, *desolate*, *gorgeous*, *spectacular*. Do not be afraid to use striking words. Although florid, ornate language should not be affected, there is no need of leaving your speech colorless and bare. Nevertheless discretion is desirable. Some words good in their right places become ludicrous in the wrong ones. So context as well as fitness must be considered. Words which might well be used of a battle scene may not do for a quarrel between kittens.

Often a description has one specific purpose. The speaker wishes to give the impression of horror, of admiration, of fear or of delight, of amusement or awe. The chief purpose of picturing one scene may be to show the desolation; of another, such as a scene on Broadway, to portray the life and action. A description of a fire company on the way to a fire may well be centered on the impression of haste, to

such an extent that there is as much suspense as in a good narrative.

In order to obtain the desired impression, as a whole, only such details may be chosen as will, in some way, aid or be subordinate to the main idea. That must be kept constantly in mind. The fewer the details, then, the more likely the impression is to be clear cut. The words, too, must be selected with a view to deepening this impression. Motion words help to give life. Words denoting or suggesting color or sound must be used to give the effect of color or sound. Repetition of the effect in other words emphasizes it.

Exercise XXV.

In one or two sentences describe a sound, a taste, a smell, a feeling, mental or physical, a color. Use words that give effect. Try various comparisons to see if you can find any that fit. Seek to adapt the word to the sense, so that the sound of it suggests the thing.

1. One afternoon some summers ago I was in Wichita, in the state in which I then lived, and about five o'clock in the evening I took the south-bound Sante Fé train for Wellington, a town some thirty miles to the south. It was a southern Kansas afternoon in late August. The early and the later rains had given the farmers matured crops in abundance before the season of drought had come, but now for days and days the hot winds like the breath from a super-heated furnace had swept across the prairies, filling the baked and hardened ground with wide fissures that gaped with repulsive thirstiness. The grass, dried and browned by heat of sun, seemed tinder-box-like to invite devouring flame. The corn blades wrinkled and curled under the blast of heat until the gaunt stalks seemed bereft of everything save drooping ears.

The sun had shone with increased brightness and burned with increased fervor in a sky that seemed always to have been cloudless.

The very air danced with heat waves that brought tears to strained eyes; the cattle on parched pastures sought in vain for the brooks, creeks, springs and ponds long since licked up by the thirsty sun. The barbed wire fences stretched miles and miles away like heated lines of silver, glistening in the sunlight. The buildings in towns and cities cast perspiring frowns; the very pavements reflected back to the heavens the burning heat-rays they refused to absorb and men almost lifeless began to inquire, "Will it ever rain again?"

From a sermon by DR. GUY POTTER BENTON.

2. Then as the sun rose higher in the sky the campus began to fill to overflowing with a varied company of men and women. The special train from New York at 10 o'clock brought hundreds to the campus, and shortly after that the dormitories and clubhouses gave forth their hosts of graduates and undergraduates.

There was color everywhere, the severe black of many robes of much learning relieved and brightened with every variety of academic insignia. The campus was rich with the greens and purples and yellows of scholastic distinction with here and there the flaming gowns of Oxford men. On the outskirts of the crowd was the light and color of Summer gowns and bright parasols tilted in the warm May sunlight, for three of the clubs had given dances the night before and the ceremonies had their quota of Princeton girls. And in and out of the crowd darted undergraduates innumerable, a profusion of white flannels.

It was a perfect day. They called it a Princeton day. The campus in its new green was a glory of sunshine.

Scene on Princeton campus, at inauguration of President Hibben.
"New York Times."

3. But in another five minutes the light shone pink on them, and we saw they were icebergs, towering many feet in the air, huge glistening masses, deadly white, still and peaked in a way that had suggested a schooner.

From interview with Lawrence Beesley, after Titanic disaster.
"New York Times."

4. She was as dead an old woman as ever I saw: no more than bone and parchment, curiously put together. Her eyes, with which she interrogated mine, were vacant of sense. STEVENSON.

5. The inn bore the name of some woodland animal, stag, or hart, or hind, I forget which. But I shall never forget how spacious and how eminently habitable it looked as we drew near. The carriage entry was lighted up, not by intention, but from the mere superfluity of fire and candle in the house. A rattle of many dishes came to our ears; we sighted a great field of table-cloth, the kitchen glowed like a forge and smelt like a garden of things to eat.

STEVENSON.

6. For league upon league the desert uniformity of the prospect was almost unbroken, the hills were dotted with little tufts of shriveled grass, but betwixt these the white sand was glaring in the sun; and the channel of the river, almost on a level with the plain, was but one great sand-bed, about half a mile wide.

FRANCIS PARKMAN.

7. The light of day is dying over the forests of the upper Mississippi. The silence of high space falls upon the vast stream. On a thunder-blasted tree-top near the western bank sits a lone, stern figure waiting for its lordliest prey—the eagle waiting for the swan.

JAMES LANE ALLEN.

8. But here was a turreted border castle, bristling at the head of the gorge, like the fangs in a boar's throat. EDITH WHARTON.

9. Over the river, so still with its oily eddies and delicate wreaths of foam, just below the falls they have in late years woven a web of wire high in air, and hung a bridge from precipice to precipice. Of all the bridges made with hands it seems the lightest, most ethereal.

HOWELLS.

10. He found the Abbot a man with a bland intriguing eye, and centuries of pious leisure in his voice.

EDITH WHARTON.

11. The camel is a proud, mysterious, solemn, ancient, ungainly, majestic and ridiculous shape, stalking out of the past.

T. DEWITT TALMAGE.

12. In our tent in Palestine to-night I hear something I have never heard before and hope never to hear again. It is the voice of a hyena amid the rocks nearby. When you may have seen this monster putting his mouth between the iron bars of a menagerie, he is a captive and he gives a humiliated and suppressed cry. But yonder, in the midnight on a throne of rocks, he utters himself in a loud, resounding, terrific, almost supernatural sound, splitting up the dark into a deeper midnight. It begins in a howl and ends with a sound something like a horse's whinnying. In the hyena's voice are defiance and strength and bloodthirstiness and crunching of broken bones and death.

T. DEWITT TALMAGE.

13. The massive trunks seemed like pillars set to uphold the level roof of green. Great yellow birches, shaggy with age, stretched their knotted arms high above us; sugar maples stood up straight and proud under their leafy crowns; and smooth beeches—the most polished and park-like of all the forest trees—offered opportunities for the carving of lovers' names in a place where few lovers ever come.

HENRY VAN DYKE.

14. But when we turned to the south and east, how wonderful and different was the view! Here was no wide-spread and smiling landscape with gleams of silver scattered through it, and soft blue haze resting upon its fading verge, but a wild land of mountains, stern, rugged, tumultuous, rising one behind another like the waves of a stormy ocean—Ossa piled upon Pelion,—McIntyre's sharp peak, and the ragged crest of the Gothics, and, above all, Marcy's dome-like head, raised just far enough above the others to assert his royal right as monarch of the Adirondacks.

HENRY VAN DYKE.

We may have occasion to describe scenes in which people fit into the picture. Sometimes the instant of highest tension is caught, as in a photograph. Perhaps figures are moving

about in swift, vital action. Here is opportunity to show background, atmosphere, figures, motion, color, sound—a harmonious whole made up of many elements. There may be bits of narrative, for the action may progress or change in a moment. Here, too, contrast may be used. Every element of good description enters.

1. I raised my eyes, and I shall never forget the spectacle that I saw. The greater part of the smoke had risen, and hung in a canopy about twenty feet above the redoubt. Through a bluish haze I could see the Russian grenadiers behind their half-destroyed parapet, with arms raised, motionless as statues. It seems to me that I can see now each soldier, with his left eye fastened upon us, the right hidden by the leveled musket. In an embrasure, a few yards away, a man stood beside a cannon, holding a fuse.

I shuddered, and I thought that my last hour had come.

The Taking of the Redoubt, by PROSPER MÉRIMÉE. Trans. by Geo. B. Ives. "Little French Masterpieces Series."

2. As the day grew old and we passed rapidly up from the rear to the head of the hurrying column, the roar of battle grew more distinct, until at last we crowned a hill, and the contest broke upon us. Across the deep valley, some two miles away, we could see the white smoke of the bursting shells, while below the sharp incessant rattle of the musketry told of the fierce struggle that was going on. Before us ran a straight, white, dusty road, choked with artillery, ambulances, caissons, ammunition trains, all pressing forward to the field of battle. While mixed among them, their bayonets gleaming through the dust like wavelets on a river of steel, tired, footsore, hungry, thirsty, begrimed with sweat and dust, the gallant infantry of Sedgewick's corps hurried to the sound of the cannon as men might have flocked to a feast. Moving rapidly forward, we crossed the brook which lay so prominently across the map of the field of battle, and halted on its farther side to await our orders. Hardly had I dismounted from my horse, when looking back I saw that the head of the column had reached the brook and deployed and halted on its other bank, and already the stream

was filled with naked men shouting with pleasure as they washed off the sweat of their long day's march. Even as I looked, the noise of battle grew louder, and soon the symptoms of movement were evident. The rappel was heard, the bathers hurriedly clad themselves, the ranks were formed, and the sharp, quick snap of the percussion caps told us the men were preparing their weapons for action. Almost immediately a general officer rode up to the front of the line, addressed to it a few brief, energetic words, the short sharp order to move by the flank was given, followed immediately by the "double quick," the officer placed himself at the head of the column, and that brave infantry which had marched almost forty miles since the setting of yesterday's sun—which during the day had hardly known either sleep, or food, or rest, or shelter from the July heat,—now, as the shadows grew long, hurried forward on the run to take its place in the front of battle and to bear up the reeling fortunes of the day.

From *Oration on Battle of Gettysburg* by CHARLES FRANCIS ADAMS, Quincy, Mass., July 4, 1869. "World's Best Orations."

3. General Lee, after a cheery conversation, parted the window curtains and invited his visitors to a tiny balcony overhanging the street. The view was enlivening. The Prado was bathed in the effulgence of electric lights, and the statue of Isabella adorning the oblong park fronting the hotel looked like an alabaster figure. All was life and activity. A cool breeze came from the ocean. A stream of well-dressed ladies and gentlemen poured along the Prado—dark-eyed señoritas and señoritas with coquettish veils, volunteers, regulars, and civil guards, in tasty uniforms, and a cosmopolitan sprinkling of Englishmen, Germans, French, Italians, and other nationalities, Americans being conspicuous. Low-wheeled carriages rattled over the pavements in scores, many filled with ladies en masque, on their way to the ball. Occasionally the notes of a bugle were heard, and anon the cries of negro newsboys, shouting "La Lucha!"

Description of scene in Havana, by AMOS J. CUMMINGS. "Congressional Record."

Exercise XXVI.

You have seen a production of some play, possibly one that you are reading in class. Describe some scene in which an important character appears at an exciting moment; for instance, just after Orlando rushes in while the exiles are eating, or where Orlando talks with Jaques while Celia and Rosalind listen. Include background, important details, and take care to show the relation of objects and persons. Indicate bearing and expression of face.

Exercise XXVII.

Describe one of the following, showing action:

Skating scene.

Scene at village post-office at mail-time.

Scene at railway station as train comes in.

Scene after church service.

Scene on circus grounds, or at the zoo.

Ballroom during dance.

Scene just after a wreck, or at a fire.

Scene on steamer deck or on pier, as ship goes out, or enters.

Scene before or during or after some ball game.

Brooklyn Bridge at the rush hour.

Subway station in New York or Boston at 8 A. M. or 6 P. M.

Scene in a large store, during a bargain sale, or on Christmas Eve.

Street scene on a main street in a large city after the play.

Scene during a parade.

Scene at a country fair.

Scene before or after school, or at lunch time.

Scene on street at beginning of heavy shower—(Read HAWTHORNE's *Sights from a Steeple*, in "Twice-Told Tales").

The description of the scenes during the advance of the army, given on pages 220-21, illustrates a kind of description that progresses, though it is not pure narrative. A succession of pictures is given, without including any incident. Often this is more vivid than a single picture.

It gives opportunity for movement, and therefore truly presents a scene of action.

Exercise XXVIII.

Describe a race, or the rush to a fire, or the successive scenes in a football game.

Describe the changing scene viewed from a moving train or from a river boat.

In giving the general impression, in any of the exercises, you have used description by effect. This method may be used for entire descriptions.

CHAPTER VII

EXPOSITION

NATURE OF EXPOSITION

The word **exposition** means literally a setting out, or laying open. Sometimes the term **explanation** is used instead. It is that form of expression which makes some information or direction clear, which tells what or how. It does not relate a series of happenings, or even give an account of a single event with continued action, as does narrative. It may, however, state what certain persons or groups of persons are accustomed to do under specific circumstances, such as the Saturday afternoon dress parade at West Point. Nor does exposition aim to reproduce in the mind of the hearer a definite picture of an individual person or place, though it may state what characteristics one possesses. In other words, description gives a representation of the individual as distinguished from other members of a class or type, but exposition states the general marks common to all members of a class, or states what qualities the individual has without showing the appearance. One pupil may explain the plan or construction of the school building. Another may describe it, showing it as he sees it, without exact information as to dimensions. A political speaker may state fully what the Republican party stands for in that campaign, using exposition, not argument, as he would in attempting to convince the voters that they should elect the candidates who hold those principles.

The purpose, then, of exposition, is to give information of some kind in a clear, accurate way. One may find exposition necessary to make others understand the nature of work to be done, how to plan or carry out the work, conditions that exist, processes that others have followed, or even the personal opinion of the one giving the information, or theories that someone else holds.

Exercise I.

Read the examples on pages 207 and 259 to distinguish description, exposition, and argument. Give reasons for your classification.

CLASSIFICATION

There are various kinds of exposition. A simple definition is one. So is the explanation of what a museum in all its varied departments is. One may state what an automobile is. Then he may give a long and detailed account of how the machines are made and placed on the market. He may state the characteristics or advantages of various kinds. He may explain the workings of the parts to produce motion of the whole, and state the theory which the inventors applied. If experienced in its use, he can show someone else how to run it, and give directions for proper care, or how to make repairs. The dealer has, possibly, knowledge of the best methods of salesmanship, which he communicates to his men. He also knows the conditions of the trade, or production, or increased cost of making and marketing, which he tells other dealers, or a prospective purchaser. Of course, he should be able to give his own opinions as to the good workmanship and superiority of the car he sells. He should know its qualities of speed, endurance, and economy of fuel. It may be convenient for him to be able to summarize briefly the statements in a

large catalog. Moreover, he should be able to give salesmen aid in selling to people known to him in the vicinity, by giving character sketches that reveal personality, thus enabling the agent to obtain the attention, the interest, and the confidence of the possible purchaser. In fact, few people, in any occupation, do not frequently have opportunity to use all kinds of exposition.

The conditions of its use are more varied, perhaps, than for other forms of expression. The schoolboy is stopped on the street, and tells a stranger how to reach the station or the shopping district. He reaches school, and tells his companions how to make a new kind of knot, or explains a method of play he saw the day before. If accused of breaking an appointment, he states the facts which explain his action. If another boy cannot understand the theory of the steam engine, or the law of gravitation, he tries to make it clear. Perhaps he sets forth the conditions that make an additional society in the school desirable, or an appeal to the Board of Education for a new playground necessary. There is no doubt that he will freely express his opinions whenever occasion offers, or that he will characterize the new boy or the new teacher with great forcefulness. His sister, too, has much the same occasion to use all kinds of explanation, and does it just as glibly; but when either one is asked to say the same kind of thing formally, before a number of people, it seems a task. Why should anything that is so common a part of the day's work or play be regarded as a forced, unnatural labor, to affright or confuse?

ESSENTIAL QUALITIES OF EXPOSITION

Exposition, like every other kind of writing or talking, must have some qualities in high degree, to make it fulfil

its purpose. The most necessary are those of CLEARNESS, ACCURACY, UNITY, COHERENCE, EMPHASIS, AND CONCISENESS.

In order that a series of statements may be CLEAR, the subject should be definite. On pages 24-30, we discussed the choosing and limiting of a subject. The material must be so arranged that there is a consistent plan. Otherwise there will be confusion in the mind of the speaker, and consequent failure on the part of the hearer to grasp the subject or understand the various phases. The section on planning, pages 34-43 should be carefully read for help at this point. Simplicity and conciseness of expression also aid greatly in producing clearness. Although illustration may be used, and is sometimes worth more than general statements, words should not be wasted.

Examples of clear, concise statement.

1. During the mediaeval ages and the period following the Reformation thousands of persons were put to death because charged with practicing magic and witchcraft. It was held that anyone who indulged in such practices violated the law of God and man. A belief in witchcraft and magic was prevalent in the public mind. Prosecution did not diminish the alleged practice nor lessen the belief. Putting to death merely accentuated the whole situation. The thundering of the pulpit, Catholic and Protestant, and the combined efforts of civil authorities were impotent to prevent these practices. They only ceased when a few wise men stated flatfootedly that there was no such thing as practicing magic or witchcraft, because there was no such thing as magic or witchcraft. And then it was all over.

From *Common Sense in Politics*, by JOB HEDGES.

2. In France, where they have the best roads in the world, at the head of the road system there is a magnificent technical school of roads and bridges, maintained at the expense of the National Government, from which graduates are chosen as highway engineers to build and maintain the roads of France. There is an immediate coöperation between the Republic, the departments, and the com-

munes as completely as an organized army, directed by the most intelligent head possible to obtain.

At the head of the administrative organization is a director general of bridges and highways, under whom are the chief engineers, ordinary engineers, and subordinate engineers, the latter being equivalent in rank to non-commissioned officers in the army. The subdivisions are under the direction of principal conductors and ordinary conductors. Next in line come the foremen of construction gangs, the clerks employed at headquarters, and, finally, the patrolmen, each having from 4 to 7 kilometers of highway under his immediate supervision.

The great administrative machine working in complete harmony, with definite lines of responsibility clearly established, accomplishes results with military precision and regularity. In this great army of workers not the least important unit is the patrolman, who has charge of a single section of the road. He keeps the ditches open, carefully fills holes and ruts with broken stone, removes dust and deposits of sand and earth after heavy rains, removes the trees, shrubs, and bushes, and when ordinary work is impossible breaks stone and transports it to the point where it is likely to be needed. He brings all matters requiring attention to the notice of his chief.

Every detail requiring attention is carefully noted and reported to the central authorities, so that at any time the exact condition of every foot of road throughout France may be ascertained.

Here is a system, the best in the world, over whose magnificent highways vast volumes of farm products find their way at a cost of from 7 cents to 11 cents a ton per mile. Over these roads motor cars can travel 50 miles an hour without danger. They are beautiful. They are lined on either side by ornamental and fruit trees. They are of great commercial value. They lower the cost of living, both to the town and the country, by furnishing the city with cheap food and furnishing the country with cheap freight in transporting their products to town and their materials back to the farm.

In France at the present time there are 23,656 miles of national routes, which cost \$303,975,000 to build. There are 316,898 miles of local highways, built at a cost of \$308,800,000, of which the State

furnished \$81,060,000 and the interested localities \$227,740,000. The roads of France are classified into five different divisions:

First. The national routes, traversing the various departments and connecting important centers of population.

Second. The department routes, connecting the important centers of a single department and bisecting the national routes.

Third. Highways of general communication, little less important than the previous class.

Fourth. Highways of public interest, traversing a single canton and connecting remote villages with more important roads.

Fifth. Private roads.

In the German Empire a similar system prevails, and these great nations, including the other nations of Europe, for that matter, set an example to the people of the United States which they would do well to follow.

In England they have a much more localized system, and in consequence there is in England the most striking example of lack of uniformity of road work and of excessive expenditure in proportion to mileage.

The most perfect road system, however, is that of France, which has the *most highly centralized* management of all the road systems.

It is not my purpose, Mr. President, to go into detail with regard to the best methods of construction, but only to point out the extreme importance of *centralized initiative* and *centralized knowledge proceeding with efficiency upon a fixed basis*.

From speech on *Good Roads* by SENATOR OWEN. "Congressional Record."

Exercise II.

Bring to class three terms, each representing something that you would like defined, or so clearly explained that you would thoroughly understand it.

Exercise III.

Define or explain one of the topics on pages 230-1. Let two pupils take the same subject, in some instances, for comparison later in class as to clearness of exposition.

1. A Roman phalanx.
2. A Roman legion.
3. An Egyptian obelisk.
4. The Rosetta stone.
5. An Egyptian pyramid.
6. An encyclopedia.
7. The English Constitution.
8. The American Constitution.
9. What the dead-letter office is.
10. How the Weather Bureau works.
11. Naturalization.
12. Direct legislation.
13. The recall.
14. How a criminal or civil trial is conducted.
15. A party primary, or a political convention.
16. A party platform.
17. A manor.
18. Feudalism. (Not in detail, but so as to give the main idea.)
19. A tornado.
20. A blizzard.
21. An iceberg.
22. How money is made, or postage stamps.
23. How money gets into circulation, and is withdrawn.
24. How the scenery of a play is changed.
25. A "skyscraper."
26. An apartment house.
27. The Smithsonian Institute.
28. The Rockefeller Foundation, or the Carnegie Foundation.
29. What mathematics is, or geology, or physics, or chemistry, or astronomy.
30. What civics is, or history, or economics, or literature.
31. What a water wave, or light wave, is.
32. Atwood's machine.
33. What a dynamo is.
34. What a volcano is.
35. What a glacier is.

36. What an earthquake is.
37. What is meant by alternation of generations.
38. How condensed milk is made, or vegetables, fruit, or meat canned.
39. How moving pictures are made and reproduced.
40. What is meant by the rotation of crops.
41. What is meant by scientific management.
42. What wireless telegraphy is.
43. What is meant by the theory of evolution.
44. The Republican, or Democratic, or Progressive, or Socialist Party.
45. How books are advertised, or machinery, or clothing.

EXAMPLES OF DEFINITION

1. What is a Democrat? He is an individualist. He believes in the right of every man to be and to make of himself all that God has put into him. He is a man who believes and practices the doctrine of equal rights and the duty and obligation of seeing to it as far as he can that no man shall be denied the chances in life which God intended him to have. He is a man who believes in the Declaration of Independence, and who is filled with that spirit of equality which has made this country of ours the refuge of the oppressed of all the world and the hope of this age and of all ages to come.

GOVERNOR AYCOCK.

2. Political parties, popular notions to the contrary, are any two or more individuals acting with a common purpose. The size of the party does not change the proposition, but merely extends the degree of influence.

Political organizations are the standing committees of parties, charged with their internal management between conventions and during campaigns.

Bosses are persons of official or unofficial authority in party organizations whose position is due to their own capacity, or to the quiescence of those over whom their influence extends.

From *Common Sense in Politics* by JOB HEDGES.

3. What is a trust? It is a combination of capital designed to simplify and unify business, or a combination of labor, designed to simplify and unify industry. It is easy to see, therefore, that there can be good trusts and bad trusts, just as there can be good men and bad men. A trust is a good trust when it performs the work for which it has been organized, and produces better goods at cheaper prices and delivers them to the consumer more conveniently than a dozen different concerns could do. The consumer is the sovereign factor. The well-being of the masses is the result of every industrial development that endures.

A trust is a bad trust when it raises prices dishonestly and without other reason than to satisfy the greed of its managers. A man is a bad man when he steals, and, when he does that, he ought to be put in jail. A trust is a bad trust when it dishonestly raises prices and, when it does that, its managers ought to be put in jail. But because one man steals is no reason why all men should be put in jail; and because one trust is dishonest is no reason why all trust managers should be put in jail. . . .

Let me give you Nebraska farmers a perfect illustration of a trust that every farmer in this country operates himself—the self-binding harvester. I got the job of driving the first self-binding harvester that was sent to Central Illinois by the McCormicks. It was an old wire binder. It was a trust. It was the only trust with which I ever had anything to do. It did what several machines and implements were required to do before. It enabled the farmer to harvest and market his grain at much less cost than he was able to do before. The first season the self-binding harvester appeared in Illinois, the same arguments were advanced against it that are now advanced against trusts.

* * * * *

Let me give you another and simpler example of the trust. There is in this country a great railway system called "The Big Four Railroad." A great deal of it is in Indiana, and most of it is in that state and in Ohio. I remember the time when the railroads that formed what is now the Big Four Railroad system were

short, separate lines. Service on each of these lines was poor. Cars were bad. Tracks and roadbeds were far from safe.

The passenger who wanted to travel any considerable distance had to get off the cars at one end of a line and get on other cars of another line, and the longer he traveled the more he had to do this. He had to pay higher fare than now and to buy many separate tickets. The employees of these various lines were fewer in number than they are now and were paid smaller wages. Frequently the lines went into the hands of receivers and the workingmen had trouble in getting their wages at all.

Finally a wise manager combined these lines into one system. What was the result? More trains, faster time, better cars, cheaper rates and through service. You can now get on one of that system's trains, and, without change, go to distant points which before required two or three changes and two or three tickets. The system employs many more men than the separate lines employed. The service is greatly improved. The convenience to the passenger is not a comparison but a contrast with what it used to be. Therefore, there is more traveling, more business. You are carried more cheaply in palace cars; your grain is hauled at lower rates of freight, more safely and more speedily. And so it is that a miracle is wrought, better service and cheaper rates to the public on the one hand, and more employment and higher wages to the employees on the other hand; at the same time, more profit to the stockholders who own the road.

Extracts from Campaign Speech by ALBERT J. BEVERIDGE at Columbus, Nebraska, Sept. 28, 1900. *The Meaning of the Times and Other Speeches*. Copyright, 1909, by The Bobbs, Merrill Co. Used by permission.

Exercise IV.

Select one of the subjects on pages 234-5, and, after careful planning, by noting on paper the necessary steps, tell the class how to do the work. Give special attention to clearness. Be sure to include everything necessary to enable a hearer to follow your directions. Use drawings at the board if they will be helpful.

1. How to make bread, or some kind of cake or pie, or pudding, or salad.
2. How to launder lace, or a shirtwaist.
3. How to make some dainty, inexpensive Christmas gift.
4. How to decorate a table or room for some special occasion, as for a party on some holiday, or class social.
5. How to furnish a boy's room.
6. How to furnish a room in colonial style.
7. How to plant a vegetable or flower garden.
8. How to plan an old-fashioned flower garden.
9. How to take care of palms, ferns, or any kind of plant.
10. How to care for a garden.
11. How to care for a lawn.
12. How to graft or bud a fruit-tree.
13. How to cut down a tree.
14. How to care for a pet bird or animal.
15. How to teach a dog tricks.
16. How to trim a hedge.
17. How to develop and print a photograph.
18. How to make a battery.
19. How to put up a tent.
20. How to pack a trunk, or a camping outfit.
21. How to make, and to extinguish, a camp fire.
22. How to revive a fainting or drowning person.
23. How to save a drowning person.
24. How to treat some common injury.
25. How to ship goods from _____ to _____ by the cheapest, or the nearest way.
26. How to reach _____ most quickly from _____.
27. How to make a shirtwaist, or dress of some specific style.
28. How to make some new play in a game known to your hearers.
29. How to use the dictionary, or a cyclopedia, or the library.
30. A good way to prepare a certain lesson in French, German, or history.
31. How to prepare for examinations.

32. How to read a newspaper.
33. How to fix a broken hinge.
34. How to file a saw.
35. How to prepare a certain kind of rough board for use in the shop.
36. How to care for an engine, or any machine.
37. How to care for horses, or cows.
38. How to pack eggs, or some other breakable, for parcel post.
39. How to put up a telephone line to your neighbor's house.
40. How to construct a mail-box signal, to be seen at some distance.
41. How to perform a certain experiment, in physics or chemistry.
42. How to mount flowers, or insects, or how to stuff birds.
43. How to clean a fish, or prepare some small animal for cooking.

One of the most frequent criticisms of our high school graduates is that they are not accurate, either in following instructions or in performing routine tasks. Although some people are gifted with exceptional natural attention to detail, ACCURACY is a quality that can be cultivated. As an aid in attaining success, by increasing the value of one's services, it cannot be overestimated. If one is constantly making mistakes he wastes much time correcting them. He may be put to great inconvenience as a result of some trivial omission or distortion. Worse still, he may not only cause heavy expense to his employers, but may even entail great loss of life.

A few years ago the General Electric Company received an order from a European country for several large pieces of electrical apparatus. Although it was the custom to test all machines sent out, in this case the testing was impossible, because of the lack of a suitable space. So the parts of the machines were packed and shipped, and a man sent along to assemble the parts and set up the whole. The machine failed to work. There were parts which did not

articulate. On investigation, it was found that a slight mistake had been made in the drawing from which blue-prints had been made for the pattern-maker. The apparatus, worth seventy thousand dollars, was thrown away. The company, taught by the costly mistake, erected a large building solely for the purpose of testing such machines.

The student who permits himself to become habitually careless is injuring himself most of all, for his character, forming day by day, is inevitably affected by his manner of work or speech. Slip-shod, slovenly methods become so ingrained that the earnest man, seeking to better himself and his service, is bound by the iron chains of habit forged in a careless youth. He cannot then always "do it over." He must often send out what cannot be recalled, what is acted on by people beyond his reach. As a matter of common honesty, too, the boy or girl who under- or overstates, who twists the statement or directions of another to something very different in meaning, is laying the foundations for a habitual mental crookedness that, no matter how well intentioned, how far from deliberate falsehood, is sometimes more deadly than a malicious lie. Who can afford to build a character on a foundation of inaccuracy, in writing or speech?

Exercise V.

Make an outline, with main and subheadings, according to forms on pages 40, 41, 243, for a talk, explanatory in nature, on one of the following. Develop your points in a short talk before the class, being careful to state accurately and impartially whatever facts are essential to a clear understanding on the part of your hearers.

Some club in your town.

The young people's society in your denomination.

Some society in your school or in another school.

Some organization, such as the W. C. T. U., the Y. W. C. A., the Y. M. C. A., the Y. W. H. A., the Y. M. H. A., the S. P. C. C., the S. P. C. A., the S. I. C. P., the G. A. R., the Sons (or Daughters) of the Revolution, the Colonial Dames, the S. P. U. G.

The Anti-Saloon League.

The United Charities.

Exercise VI.

Make an outline, and develop a short talk, clear and impartial, on the *origin* of one of the following:

Any political party, in this or another country.

Some church.

Mormonism.

Spiritualism.

Christian Science.

Some organization, such as a secret or benefit society.

Exercise VII.

Outline, and develop before the class, a talk on one of the following, being especially careful to give an accurate, impartial statement, purely explanatory, of the *principles or theory involved*:

1. Free trade.
2. Reciprocity.
3. Protective tariff.
4. The single tax, or the income tax, or the franchise tax.
5. Manhood suffrage.
6. The divine right of kings.
7. The Monroe Doctrine.
8. Municipal ownership, or government ownership.
9. Community ownership.
10. The principles of any political party in this or any other country.
11. The Whigs, or the Tories, in England in the 18th century.
12. The Jacobins.

13. Radicalism.
14. Socialism as advocated by _____.
15. The beliefs of the Quakers, of the Shakers, or of any sect recently formed.
16. The beliefs of the Church of England in the time of Henry VIII.
17. The tenets of the Separatists in the 17th century.
18. The tenets of any religious body having a church organization.

Exercise VIII.

Make an outline and develop in a short talk before the class an explanation of the theory or principles of one of the following:

1. The kinetic theory.
2. The electron theory.
3. The nebular theory.
4. Some one scientist's theory of evolution.
5. The principle of Davy's lamp for mines.
6. The glacial theory.
7. Any scientific theory with which you are familiar.
8. The principle of the telephone, or telegraphy, or wireless telegraphy.
9. The principle of the steam engine, or the gasoline engine, or of the electric motor in street cars without trolley.

Since clearness is so essential to exposition, **UNITY** must be carefully preserved. There must be a **central idea**. The subject "vacations" would be vague. No one could tell what the speaker would really talk about. But the subject "the value of vacations" would have a central idea, which could be treated in various phases. "Games" would be too general; but "the favorite sports of the English," or "the American national game," or "high school games," or "summer sports in the country," all suggest something

definite, though with several divisions. Schoolboys of a half-century ago sometimes attempted to write compositions about "Indians." No wonder they found it difficult! But if you try to outline a short essay on "Indian warfare" or "Indian character," you do not find the task a hard one.

This limiting of the subject will also help in **keeping to some one central idea**. You may have heard people ramble on about various things, scarcely touching on what they were supposed to talk about. Digression of this kind is just as fatal to interest and to clearness in exposition as it is in narration. A person entering the room, or speaking to you, while you are busy, distracts your attention, and may even make it impossible for you to go on from that point. Just so, the entrance of a foreign subject distracts the thought of the brain, so that the listener feels the breaking of the thread of continuity. If the talk is about "Indian warfare," it would be incongruous and out of place to bring in a discussion of the Great Spirit, unless that is in some direct way connected with the preparations for warfare. Even if it is, would not a reference, with a sentence of explanation if necessary, be sufficient, instead of a full account of the religious system?

Exercise IX.

After careful examination of the outlines on pages 40, 41, 243 write the main headings, not more than four in number, probably, for a talk on one of the following:

1. The school system of your city.
2. An exhibition, or fair, or convention, recently held in your town.
3. The choice of a President of the United States.
4. The planning of a home.

5. The care of the sick.
6. The Erie, or some other canal.
7. The McAdoo tunnel.
8. The street-railway transfer system in your city.
9. The making of a newspaper.
10. The postal system in your city.
11. The state library.
12. The city fire department.
13. The city Board of Health.
14. The game of football, or baseball, or basket-ball, or some other.
15. The _____ fraternity, or sorority, or club.
16. The new park.
17. The local governing body of your town or city.
18. The _____ Labor Union.
19. The recent strike of _____.
20. The production of some crop, as wheat, corn, rye, oranges, celery, apples, berries, or any other of your locality.
21. The chief industry of your town.
22. The parcel post.
23. The tax system of the nation, or state, or county, or city.
24. The city water supply.
25. The milk supply of large cities.

Exercise X.

Test your main headings for the qualities of *relation to the subject*, *coördination*, *mutual exclusiveness*, and *comprehensiveness*. See pages 34-43 for discussion of outlining.

The matter of *comprehensiveness* should have special attention. Most students fail to cover the subject assigned. The reason for this may be neglect in generalizing sufficiently, in the main points. Many subjects fall naturally into several divisions, as cause or origin, nature, results or effects; purpose, nature, influence; composition, work, benefits; others have more specific phases, or points based on

time. You will find on page 35 a discussion of the bases of division.

Subordination of phases of the general subject to the whole is vitally important to unity in exposition. If a minor point is raised out of its natural rank, it is magnified beyond its deserts, and serves more to detract from the real importance of the major point than to give the support it should. Only by carefully formulating the main heads can subordinate points be rightly found, for the sub-points are the natural divisions of these. When the major term covers the group, the elements in the group are subordinate, and the individuals, numbering more, form the next lower order. Compare the organization of the army. This is made up of parts called *corps*, each organized as a complete army in itself. Each *corps* consists of two or more *divisions*. Each *division* is made up of two or more *brigades*. The *brigades* in turn are divided into two or more *regiments*, each of which consists of about ten *companies*. You will readily see that, though one *corps* may be of marines, another of engineers, etc., the lower orders have certain relative ranks that must be kept. Nevertheless, though all *regiments* are equal in rank, one may be of white men, a second of negroes, a third of Indians.

Exercise XI.

Fill in the necessary subheadings under main headings made in Exercise IX.

So much for the ranking. If, in the organization of a factory, the section doing certain work had three divisions, each engaged on a special phase of it, all equally important, but different, the placing of one of those divisions in another section, though not changing its rank, would dis-

organize and confuse both sections, and make work toward the unified, harmonious whole impossible. So, in explaining the work of such a factory, one must avoid confusing parts that do not belong together. He must **keep the divisions in their places.**

In the beginning and ending of the talk, also, is opportunity for preserving unity. The beginning leads to the specific subject, narrowing the general, making the abstract concrete, rendering the vague definite, and stating clearly the exact subject or theme. The theme sentence should be simple, concise, and clear. It is not for embellishment, but for statement of the central idea.

The ending should show that the discussion of this phase of the subject, named in the theme sentence, is finished. It should make clear just what marks the limits, and should indicate that other related matter belongs to another topic.

Exercise XII.

Study the plans, making full outlines if necessary, of speeches beginning on pages 364, 370, 378 and 383.

Exercise XIII.

Read the examples of introduction on page 46, with the discussion of types preceding. Note especially the approach to the specific subject and the theme sentence.

Exercise XIV.

Form a theme sentence for the main headings you wrote for Exercise IX, on page 239.

Formulate the points, perhaps two main ones with one order of sub-points, at least two of each set, leading up to the theme sentence.

THE STUDY OF GARDENING IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Introduction.

- I. Many feel that the city child should know something of working in the ground.
- II. He has no opportunities for gardening.
 - A. At home.
 1. No interest by parents.
 2. Often no space.
 - B. In parks, digging forbidden.
- III. Therefore, courses in gardening have been introduced in some public schools.

Discussion.

- I. There are various purposes in this instruction.
 - A. To arouse
 1. Willingness of children to work.
 2. Interest in growing things.
 3. Pride of ownership.
 4. Appreciation of beauty in nature.
 - B. To teach
 1. Economy.
 2. Concentration of effort.
 3. Care of property.
 - C. To prevent
 1. Development of harmful ways of spending time.
 2. Sluggish inactivity in poor air and light.
- II. Such school gardening has proved practicable.
 - A. Places.
 1. School playgrounds.
 2. Vacant plots near schools.
 - B. Method of maintenance.
 1. School giving fairs.
 2. Necessities purchased from proceeds of sale of products.
 3. Contributions from interested persons.

C. Instruction and aid.

1. In lower schools, as nature study.
 - a. Plants in gardens.
 - b. Bugs and worms.
 - (1) Helpful, as bees.
 - (2) Harmful, as grubs.
2. In higher schools, in connection with botany and zoölogy.
 - a. Nature and structure of plants.
 - b. Varieties of animal life involved.

III. Good results have been obtained.

A. Practical.

1. Flowers.
 - a. Used as objects for drawing.
 - b. Used in botany classes.
2. Vegetables.
 - a. Used in cooking classes.
 - c. Used in pupils' homes.

B. *Æ*sthetic.

1. Increased appreciation of nature.
2. Adornment of school by flowers and plants.

C. Healthful.

1. Giving outdoor exercise.
2. Giving change in study.
3. Furnishing needed interest.

Conclusion.

- I. The objections formerly made to such gardening seem to have been shown groundless.
- II. Successful experiments have been tried in certain schools (names).
- III. It is to be hoped that many others will try gardening.

Every kind of composition, whether spoken or written, must depend largely for clearness on COHERENCE. This word means a sticking together. You all know that the parts of a thing must be rightly put together if the whole

is to be of any use. If you have the seat, back, and legs of a chair, you cannot achieve a result of value by putting the back where the front legs should go, and the legs on the top. If you cut out the parts of a waist, but interchange the sleeves, or put a section of the front in the back, the garment cannot be worn. A talk put together with like carelessness would be worth just as little. It would be confusing to the hearer.

There are two principal ways of obtaining coherence. The first is a natural one. **Follow the natural, logical order.** In the explanation of a proposition, some statements necessarily precede others, because the latter are dependent on them. In showing a process, the time order can most easily be used. In a summary, the points come in the same order as in the larger work. In the expression of an opinion, the premises are naturally followed by the deduction. In many subjects one point, such as *purpose*, most readily suggests the next, *work* or *methods*. The second, or more artificial, method is that of **inserting something to make the transition smoother.** A link paragraph of two or three sentences may be used in talks of considerable length. This shows the change to another phase, and can be emphasized by the bearing. In a short talk there is no time to waste. Then, a **sentence** at the beginning of the new paragraph, together with the concluding sentence of the last preceding one, forms the bridge. Sometimes the transition is made by a **clause or phrase** at the beginning of the topic sentence for that division. More often a **word** serves to show the connection between minor points.

LINK PARAGRAPHS

1. And now, fellow-citizens, without pursuing the biography of these illustrious men farther, for the present, let us turn our atten-

tion to the most prominent act of their lives, their participation in the Declaration of Independence.

From *Adams and Jefferson* by WEBSTER.

2. The constructive possibilities that are embraced in the coming of immigration are beyond our power to compute at present. But there are two great elements involved to which especial attention must be called.

JOSEPH H. HART.

3. I choose, Sir, to enter into these minute and particular details, because generalities, which in all other cases are apt to heighten and raise the subject, have here a tendency to sink it. When we speak of the commerce with our colonies, fiction lags after truth, invention is unfruitful, and imagination cold and barren.

BURKE. *Speech on Conciliation.*

4. So far, Sir, as to the importance of the object, in view of its commerce, as concerned in the exports from England. If I were to detail the imports, I could show how many enjoyments they procure which deceive the burthen of life; how many materials which invigorate the springs of national industry, and extend and animate every part of our foreign and domestic commerce. This would be a curious subject indeed; but I must prescribe bounds to myself in a matter so vast and various.

BURKE. *Speech on Conciliation.*

5. These, Sir, are my reasons for not entertaining that high opinion of untried force by which many gentlemen, for whose sentiments in other particulars I have great respect, seem to be so greatly captivated. But there is still behind a third consideration concerning this object which serves to determine my opinion on the sort of policy which ought to be pursued in the management of America, even more than its population and its commerce—I mean its *temper and character*.

BURKE. *Speech on Conciliation.*

TRANSITIONAL SENTENCES

1. So much, Sir, as to this bill; and now let me add a few words about those by whom it has been framed and introduced.
2. In the third place, certain industrial conditions fall clearly below the levels which the public to-day sanction.
3. What is needed is action directly the reverse of that thus profusely indicated.
4. For this work we have an instrument at hand in the science of statistics, and what we want to do is to put our wisest men at work. . . .
5. Another knot for the Great Analysis to untie would be the diversity of languages.
6. In view of this halting attitude, which may be expected in many of the states where the need of reform is greatest, Federal action is necessary.
7. Over against this example of Democratic irresponsibility, let me call to your attention the attitude of President Taft in dealing with similar subjects.
8. More than this, however, he has done.
9. And the people are beginning to be conscious of this burden. They are crying out: "Let us be done with war."
10. And, on the other hand, in most of these questions the attitude of the Democratic party is just the reverse.
11. But we must look more directly into the contents of human nature, and the internal ruin by which they are displayed.
12. Such is also the order of the intellectual system.
13. Now, to the end of changing these conditions, what do we propose?
14. But this makes us face the other phase of the constructive possibilities that lie within immigration.
15. Next to the opening of the China trade, Sir, the change most eagerly demanded by the English people, was that the restrictions on the admission of Europeans to India should be removed.
16. It was thus that the reasonable hope of relief through the election of Gen. Jackson was blasted; but still another remained.

Even more important in speech than in writing is the attainment of force or **EMPHASIS**. Without this the speaker fails to make the most of his material. He leaves a weak, vague impression, where he might leave a strong, deep, lasting one. Emphasis consists in so striking the attention that it is involuntarily arrested, and held.

Whatever is **unusual** has force. A sudden light or sound takes the attention at once. So the introduction of something unexpected, in the form of a description or illustration, serves to impress the point on the mind of the hearer. But care must be taken not to carry this to such a degree that distraction results. A **well-proportioned** talk has emphasis, since it gives due space to each part, neither exaggerating the less nor minimizing the greater. The use of **climax**, beginning with the least important and leading to the most important, also gives strength. Sometimes the last should be that point on which, though it is of less value, the speaker, for the sake of effect, wishes to lay most stress. Here he must consider the audience.

Exercise XV.

Give a short talk, of not more than three minutes, telling what one of the persons mentioned below, or some other suggested by the instructor, accomplished, or what he is noted for. Make careful selection of material, and arrange with regard to proportion and climax. Outline first.

1. Marconi.	9. Andrew Carnegie.
2. The Wright brothers.	10. Madame Montessori.
3. Count Zeppelin.	11. Felix Adler.
4. Santos Dumont.	12. Newell Dwight Hillis.
5. Luther Burbank.	13. Mme. Curie.
6. George Westinghouse.	14. Louis Pasteur.
7. J. Pierpont Morgan.	15. Col. George Waring.
8. John D. Rockefeller.	16. Lord Kelvin.

17. Henry M. Stanley.	30. Ida Lewis.
18. Julia Ward Howe.	31. Florence Nightingale.
19. Eli Whitney.	32. Clara Barton.
20. Elias Howe.	33. Jane Addams.
21. Admiral Togo.	34. Edwin Booth.
22. Admiral Sigsbee.	35. Henry Irving.
23. Bessemer.	36. Mrs. Siddons.
24. Gen. Leonard Wood.	37. Whistler.
25. Ben Lindsey.	38. John La Farge.
26. Father Damien.	39. Augustus St. Gaudens.
27. "Father" Taylor.	40. John Sargent.
28. Mary A. Livermore.	41. Dr. Simon Flexner.
29. Elizabeth Cady Stanton.	42. Dr. Alexis Carrel.

Exercise XVI.

A noted foreigner is visiting this country, or some well-known person is expected in your town. Tell the class or school what you think everyone ought to know about him. Follow directions in Exercise XV.

Exercise XVII.

Some prominent man or woman has recently died. Tell the class or the school what you think should be known about him, in order that your hearers may understand his place in the world, and may profit by his life. Observe directions for Exercise XV. See page 382.

Note the following tributes to Whitelaw Reid from different points of view.

1. To-day the social gathering that usually follows the Monday afternoon lectures on journalism is omitted because of the death yesterday in London of the Ambassador of the United States, Whitelaw Reid, the chairman of the advisory board of this school. Nearly forty years ago Mr. Reid delivered one of the first, if not the first, of the addresses by a journalist of the first rank, urging professional training for the calling in which he had already won high distinction.

From 1875 to 1885 there were many jibes in American newspapers against the plea. The editor of the Tribune continued in season and out to insist on a special education for journalists. His own career gave his words authority. He entered journalism a young college graduate, one of the few before the Civil War who sought the newspaper office with this training. He distinguished himself as a war correspondent. His dispatch of the battle of Pittsburgh Landing over the signature of "Agate" in "The Cincinnati Gazette" had an effect on public opinion equaled by few dispatches from the battlefield during the war. Its courage and accuracy led it to be sought only the other day by Sir George Trevelyan in his work on the Civil War, a remarkable example of the value of a journalist's work half a century after the chronicle.

After a brilliant career as Washington correspondent Mr. Reid became editor of The Tribune, which for over seventy years has had but two chief editors, an instance of permanence in honor and influence in a calling whose work is too often looked upon as transitory. Like the greatest of American journalists, Benjamin Franklin, Mr. Reid represented the Republic in Paris, and he has been the representative of our branch of the English speaking race to the other for a longer time than any man since Pinckney began that illustrious roll.

In this school he has always taken an interest borne of his early advocacy of professional training for journalists. In the thronged days when he was in this city this fall he gave a forenoon to learn in detail what was being done in the school in studies, courses and the training of the reporter. He expressed the hope of resuming his attention to the work when he returned.

To the national sorrow for the going of an American of high public service and the regret among journalists at the end of a noteworthy career in American journalism there is added the sense of loss in this school for his death.

Speech at School of Journalism by TALCOTT WILLIAMS. Reported for the "New York Tribune."

2. Before the House proceeds to the orders of the day I would ask leave to give brief expression to the sincere grief which is shared by

the whole nation at the death of the American Ambassador, Mr. Whitelaw Reid.

The American Ambassador to this country has a position of his own which is independent of his status and functions as the diplomatic representative of an external power. We regard him as a kinsman.

He is also honored here as a welcome guest, sprung from our own race, speaking our own language, sharing with us by birth as well as by inheritance not a few of our most cherished traditions, and participating when he comes here by what I may describe as a natural right in our domestic interests and celebrations.

His office has been held and adorned by a long succession of distinguished men, but I am not using the language of exaggeration when I say that none of them more fully entered into its spirit and maintained its special authority than did Mr. Whitelaw Reid.

He brought to the discharge of its manifold and exacting duties the gathered experience of a veteran in public affairs, the endowments of a mind of the highest culture, social gifts of the most genial and generous kind, keen sympathy with all the many sides of our British life, a mind always open and receptive and with the warmest of hearts.

We propose to suggest to the American government that one of his majesty's battleships or cruisers should convey the body of the late Ambassador to his native land. I am certain I am interpreting the sentiments of the whole House when I venture in the name of the members to offer to the late Ambassador's family and to the President and people of the United States our deep and heartfelt sympathy in the loss of one who was a great American and who none the less was at home among us, and who in a true and real sense was one of us.

Speech before the House of Commons, by PREMIER ASQUITH. Reported for the "New York Tribune."

Many speakers are known as "long winded." They talk so long, and give so many unessential details, that the hearers not only become tired, but fail to grasp the vital

content of their remarks. Therefore, we should try to be CONCISE, selecting the essential details, omitting unnecessary or confusing material, arranging with due regard for proportion and logical order, and choosing the clearest, most suitable expressions. Repetition should be avoided unless its use will clear up technical obscurity. Straightforward, crisp, unadorned statement should be practiced. See page 84, rules for emphasis, for discussion of redundancy, etc.

Exercise XVIII.

Summarize, for the class, as briefly as possible with clearness and fairness, one of the following. In preparation, make a topical outline with main and sub-points. Be careful to keep the same proportion.

An editorial of about one column, from a newspaper or magazine, on some interesting current topic.

An article in a magazine on some recent invention or social or political movement.

A chapter from a text-book on a subject which you study.

Some lecture you have recently heard.

Exercise XIX.

Following directions for Exercise XVIII, summarize an expository book, not involved or lengthy, preferably on some subject connected with school work or something in which the class is interested at the time.

Exercise XX.

Summarize for the class the proceedings of a recent business meeting of a school organization, or of a meeting which you attended as a delegate, or of a public meeting of the School Board or some other Board.

In America most of us are entirely free in expressing our opinions, if we have any, no matter how unseasonable and

even rude our frank statements may be. But it is said that many of us have no original views to express, and so merely echo those of other people. Surely we ought to have our own ideas, even though they be crude, and to be willing to make them known, courteously and at the right time. If we never begin to have independent opinions, we shall certainly never attain to sound individual judgment.

We are often asked what we think about certain books, or persons, or lines of conduct. It is humiliating to be obliged to say, "I really don't know," or to waver between two opinions. As we grow older it becomes necessary to decide on our own course of action, or on that of other persons under our care, or to select someone to fill a position. In order to do these things well, we must have the habit of formulating for ourselves quickly, decisively, and with accurate and sound judgment, our personal opinions on books, on persons, on principles, and on questions public and political as well as social and moral. Sometimes, too, it is necessary in persuading others to our views, to be able to state clearly just what we think and how we have been led to such judgments.

Exercise XXI.

Read a dramatic criticism, book review, or a criticism, expository not argumentative, of some public policy, from some paper or magazine suggested by the instructor. State in detail why you think it a good article of its kind.

Exercise XXII.

Outlining your points first, give the class your personal opinion of one of the following. Be careful to include such phases in the discussion as should be considered in forming opinions about the subject. Observe proportion and a logical order. Be entirely frank in the expression of your own

liking or the opposite, giving the personal touch without dogmatism or apparent conceit. Talk as you would to someone who had asked what you thought of the subject. Try to have a smooth, natural beginning and ending.

1. A play you have recently seen. Is it worth seeing? Why? Does it deserve public support? Why?
2. A new novel.
3. A biography that you have just read. Did you find it interesting or profitable? Why? Did the author treat his subject well? Was he fitted to do so? etc.
4. A lecturer you have heard.
5. A new building in your town.
6. A recent law or ordinance.
7. A recent act of some prominent man.
8. Some new movement or change in your town.

Exercise XXIII.

Express your ideas, perhaps in the form of suggestions for changes, on one of the following. Note directions for Exercise XXII, and outlines, pages 40, 41, 77.

1. An ideal high school, or course of study, in some one subject.
2. An ideal teacher, or pupil.
3. The right conduct of a student's organization.
4. The place of such organizations in a school.
5. The kind of vacation you would like, or some trip you would enjoy.
6. A good housekeeper.
7. A good farmer, or mechanic, or lawyer, or physician, or tradesman.
8. What you think of the popular form of amusement in some one place.
9. What you think of the present method of celebrating some holiday. (Do not make this argumentative, as a whole.)
10. What you think of some present-day political practices.
11. Your opinion of the present position of workers in some one occupation.

12. What you consider success.
13. What you think about the choice of a profession.
14. Your opinion of some local newspaper.
15. The place of athletics, or of secret societies, in such a high school as yours.
16. Why you like the study which is your favorite.
17. Why you do not do well in some study.
18. What you think should be done to improve the looks of the school building or grounds.
19. Why some boys leave school at the end of the first year in high school.
20. What could be done to hold them.
21. What could be done to improve student government in your school.
22. What you think of the system of marking in your school, and possible improvements.
23. Your opinion of the new rules in some game played at the school.
24. The help that you think could be given the school — team by the other pupils, or by the Board of Education, or by the public.

Exercise XXIV.

Make full outline for a talk on one of the following. After correction, in class or as directed by the teacher, give the talk in class, preferably without notes. Limit the subject, if necessary. See page 243, outline on gardening; page 356, address by Brinkerhoff; page 366, address by Jane Addams.

1. The peace movement.
2. The "Back to the Farm" movement.
3. The changes in the great city high schools.
4. Vocational training in high schools.
5. Manual training in schools.
6. The teaching of agriculture in high schools.
7. The growth of the arbitration idea in labor disputes.

8. The welfare movement among employers.
9. Compensation for injured employees.
10. The growth of pension systems.
11. The movement for social betterment.
12. The life of the factory worker.
13. The life of the department store worker.
14. Successful farming of the present.
15. Changes in farm conditions in the last century.
16. What specialized farming means.
17. What irrigation is doing for the West.
18. The present high cost of living.
19. The development of the moving picture industry.
20. The value of moving pictures.
21. What _____ college or technical school means to our town.
22. Our town as a commercial or business center.
23. Our town as a cultural center.

See pages 317-355 for other expository subjects.

PROPERTY OF DEPARTMENT OF DRAMATIC ART

CHAPTER VIII

ARGUMENTATION

NATURE

One of the most useful forms of speech is that employed when we wish to prove a statement that may be disputed, or when, in case of a difference of opinion, we want to show our beliefs or actions justified. **Argument** differs from **exposition** in that it is an attempt to show by evidence or reasons that the statement, belief, or policy of the speaker is the right one as opposed to another, whereas exposition states or explains something about which there is not likely to be dispute. A person may state what his views are on some subject without departing from the explanatory form; but when he tries to convince another that his views are right he is using argument. A boy who wants to go to Harvard may tell his parents of his wishes; if he sets forth the advantages of that college, or explains its curriculum, he is using exposition; but as soon as he attempts to show that it would be better for him to go to Harvard than to Yale, he argues.

USE

We sometimes hear it said of people that they are "always arguing." Most of us argue a great deal without realizing that we are doing so. The parent and child talk about a suggested excursion, or purchase. The child wants

to follow a certain plan, and gives reasons. The parent, not wishing him to, gives reasons against his carrying it out. Brothers and sisters often have lively discussions over plans or views in which they differ. School-fellows excitedly give reasons for and against certain courses of action, in playing a game, or in admitting a new boy to membership in a society. Acquaintances and friends or members of a family go over the pros and cons about going downtown to-day instead of to-morrow, buying a dress of this instead of that color, the respective merits of the seashore and the mountains as a summer resort. All are using arguments just as much as is the business man who tries to convince a possible purchaser that an inferior article is "just as good."

Not only do all people use argument frequently in ordinary every-day life, but many use it more formally in public in connection with organizations or professional work. Pupils, in class elections, often have heated debates. Church meetings are not free from them in discussions of how things are to be managed. Various public boards seem, judging from the newspaper reports, to spend much time at their meetings in more or less tempestuous argument. In courts of justice the prosecutor and the defending lawyer present arguments. Engineers, scientists, and physicians carefully formulate the proofs of their theories. Clergymen depend on able persuasive powers to win and hold the people. But those whose arguments we hear most are the politicians and statesmen in mass meetings, at political conventions, and in the legislative bodies.

Exercise I.

Examine the following to determine whether each is argu-

mentative or expository. Give reasons in support of your opinion:

1. Within the last few years, numerous attempts have been made to reproduce the stage setting of the Elizabethan period. In Sanders Theatre at Harvard University, several plays were given, without scenery, and in a manner much like that of the sixteenth century. Under the auspices of the Emerson College of Oratory, *Ralph Roister Doister* was given in 1907, with simple curtains well toward the front of the stage, through which actors passed. Pages indicated the changes of scenes by going down through the audience and back, and again taking their places at the corners. Perhaps the best known of these stage revivals have been those of Ben Greet and his company. These productions, however, only approximate the Elizabethan manner. The most accurate, probably, have been largely for the portrayal of stage history. An excellent reproduction of a stage setting of an earlier period was that at the performance of *Friar Bacon and Friar Bungay* by the Philolexian Society at Columbia University. The staging was based on the researches of Mr. Victor Albright. The balconies were represented, there was a curtain hung from the rear balcony, revealing an inner scene, and part of the action took place on this rear balcony. The properties were extremely simple, and the scene changes, for the most part, only indicated. The New Theatre, also, presented some highly creditable productions of early plays, and scenes from the *Winter's Tale*. On the whole, there has been great interest in such attempts, and some have even gone so far as to say that Shaksperean plays should be staged in the original manner.

2. The recent revivals of old plays in the manner of their original production has caused much discussion over the advisability of this method. Certainly, from several points of view, this manner of staging is desirable. The student is benefited. He can see more clearly the historical development of the drama, since many of our changes have come about through changed conditions, such as the use of electric lights. He can see just how Shakspere got his effects, for there is little to aid or obscure the imagination of the audience. This reveals the greatness of Shakspere's genius.

Moreover, the student is led to see that Shakspere's technique, marvelous as it was, is not suited to stage conditions of our time. The lover of Shakspere for his own sake is, too, given what he wants. He sees the whole play, not mutilated of some of its most significant scenes, such as the one in which Cassius wins Casca to the conspiracy, not distorted for the sake of using the same scenery in two consecutive scenes. He really gets the author's ideas with the right emphasis, instead of having his attention distracted by gorgeous scenery at which the matinée girls exclaim, or the thunder-storm during a most important conversation between Brutus and Cassius. If Shakspere himself could be heard, perhaps he would say it is only fair to him that his play be presented as he intended it to be, under the conditions for which he wrote. Only thus can true proportion be obtained, and the emphasis kept. A Shaksperean production should be for the sake of the play, not to display the art of a painter, or the craft of the stage mechanician, or the wealth of the actor-manager. Let us hope that we shall have more of Shakspere's work as it was, not twentieth century adaptations.

Exercise II.

Mention questions likely to be argued by the following:

A family about to return to the city at the end of the vacation; two boys on the playground; two physicians; several teachers of your school; the walking delegate of a labor union; the president of a railway company at a directors' meeting; Mr. Roosevelt in a party conference; the district attorney of your county; the finance board of your church; a speaker in the next state or city political campaign; a W. C. T. U. worker; a Salvation Army captain.

Exercise III.

Mention four questions that you would like to debate in class. Let the class decide whether they are debatable questions, and suited to the place, the audience, and the material and time probably at your disposal.

EVIDENCE

In supporting either side of an argument we use evidence, or whatever helps strengthen that side. There are many kinds of evidence, among them admitted facts, personal testimony, circumstantial evidence furnished by inanimate objects, authority, and the logical bases for certain reasoning.

Facts may be obtained in various ways. Some are commonly known. The number of registered pupils in _____ school is greater than the number of the seats provided by the present accommodations. Experience may be drawn upon for facts. In certain schools where there was over-crowding, illness and poor mental work resulted. Examples may be cited. Statistics compiled by the Board of Education show exactly what proportion of pupils failed or left school in 1910 as compared with the preceding year, and also what proportion were on "part time." The success or failure of an experiment must be accepted as proof. In some sections of New York portable school buildings were successfully used.

In some attempts to prove allegation or accusations **personal testimony** is given in evidence. Tom Smith may swear that he saw John Jones remove a load of coal from the railway company's shed. But his testimony must be substantiated. So another states that John Jones, whom he has known for ten years, has the reputation of taking what does not belong to him. A third, however, is certain that John was playing cards in a saloon ten miles away at the exact time when Tom says he saw the coal taken. Thus an alibi is furnished. Another may have heard John say that the railway company owes him a living, and is really a robber anyway. If someone saw John near the

coal shed shortly before the coal disappeared, Tom's testimony is strengthened.

People have sometimes been convicted even of murder on what is called **circumstantial evidence**. There is no absolute, direct proof, but circumstances indicate that the accused was guilty. The position of the dead man and of the weapons, as well as the nature of the wound, indicate that he could not have killed himself. The pistol or axe is known to have been in the possession of the accused. The latter threw away some blood-stained clothing. Of course, some of this evidence may be established by human testimony.

Authority has had considerable value in recent cases. Experts, the people who profess to be able to identify handwriting, or the testers of poisons, are called on to testify in great numbers. An expert accountant helps prove defaulting. The opinion of one versed in banking and stocks is accepted in proof of values. Books, for most of us, furnish many arguments. We are sure that a thing is so because a text-book says so. People whom we trust as careful investigators make affirmations, which we accept. Moreover, we all have our heroes, from Washington, who "never told a lie," to our fathers, whom we quote among the other boys. If the leading speaker of our political party says the tariff is a cause of high prices, or our favorite newspaper blames the trusts, we believe either implicitly, and think all who say otherwise demagogues and base deceivers.

There is one kind of evidence which we **reason out**. We are willing to believe that a thing is so because it is **probable**, to be expected. We are disinclined to believe that Bob turned his other cheek to Charley when he received a blow, instead of hitting back, because it would be contrary to boy

nature. If the teacher finds answers exactly alike on the papers of two who sat side by side, when the question required individual thought instead of memory, she knows there has been cheating, because it is a psychological impossibility for two persons to express things alike to that extent. Moreover, she can usually determine who copied by her knowledge of the mental habits and the usual manner of expression of each. **Like cases** may sometimes help one in determining the truth of a proposition. If a thing has been done it can be done again. Men's names have been forged so well that it was impossible to prove forgery from the handwriting. **Theories and principles** may also aid in reasoning, especially if their truth has been demonstrated in other instances. The economic principle of supply and demand may be used in proving what the causes of high cost of living are. The theory that men and women are radically different in brain power, though not necessarily unequal, has been used by many in support of schools for each sex.

TESTS OF EVIDENCE

In spite of the seemingly formidable array of evidence to be gathered, it is often impossible to prove to the satisfaction of even a single listener, to say nothing of a jury of twelve good men and true, or a large audience, the proposition or accusation in support of which the evidence is presented. The reason for this is that not all of it is trustworthy. The intelligent, careful person applies **tests** to every step, to every phase.

First, the **truth** of a statement may be questioned. In spite of the proverb that figures never lie, they have been juggled so that they have effectually concealed or perverted the truth. The illness of pupils or their failure may have

resulted from home conditions instead of from overcrowding. The success of one undertaking may have been exceptional, and therefore not of value as a fact in support of a proposition.

Any good lawyer can render valueless much of the testimony on the other side. He may be able to prove that the witness is of known unreliability. She may have fits of insanity or hysteria, or be commonly known as one who exaggerates. She may even have been convicted of perjury at another time. If he can cause her to contradict statements she has already made, her testimony is greatly weakened in value. Is she capable of understanding the point at issue? Is she prejudiced, because of enmity or relationship? One's views are always colored, no matter how honest one may be. Moreover, no human memory is infallible. Three witnesses, all honest in purpose, all of at least average intelligence, have been known to tell widely different stories of the same happening. Two persons may look so much alike that even an alibi is of no value. On the whole, human testimony at best is likely to be far from the truth.

The test of probability may be applied to some evidence. We do not like to accept the unfamiliar, the unlikely, though truth may be stranger than fiction. Then, too, some allegations include things later shown to be impossible, in themselves or in comparison with known facts.

In circumstantial evidence other possible explanations should be considered. Did the accused lend his pistol, or was it stolen from him? Were the blood stains those of human blood? Did the dead man wish people to think he had been killed instead of committing suicide? Was there anyone who through ill will would try to cast suspicion on an innocent person?

Authority is of varying degrees. Is the so-called expert really one? Is his opinion colored by anything? Do others of his own profession agree with him? What is his purpose? Is he correctly quoted? Some people assert things that are only rumors. Politicians may be talking for votes. Books may be written by inaccurate people, ignorant of important principles or facts. We must, then, be wary in acceptance of authority.

One of the commonest and most tricky flaws is that of introducing, as proofs, points that have no place as such. They are sometimes based on **false or illogical reasoning**. A wrong inference is drawn from acceptable premises. For Mr. Blank to say that college will not be of any use to his boy because he was successful without it does not prove the contention. To say that because Mr. Brown was not at church he must have been in a saloon is equally illogical. Many, too, have the habit of bringing in, to win the popular prejudice, points that are not pertinent, that is, logically related, to the proposition. To say that a man is not a liar among his friends, or that he is fond of his children, does not prove that he is innocent of graft. To show that workingwomen do not always have to support other members of the family does not prove that their work is not worth as high wages as a man's.

Exercise IV.

Classify and test each piece of evidence in the following:

1. A young man is on trial for destroying his aunt's last will. Her lawyer, an old and trusted friend, swears that on May 9, a month before the testator's death, he drew up a will disinheriting the accused, and superseding a former will in his favor, the only one now to be found. The deceased was in the habit of keeping her private papers in a desk in her library.

The accused was let into the house, the butler swears, on the night of his aunt's death. Because of the excitement, little attention was paid him, and he was not noticed by other servants who are sworn.

The next week, when the house was being put in order, a servant found some charred paper in the fireplace in a room little used, where, to the knowledge of the servant, no fire had been built for a long time. The bits of paper, examined under a glass, prove to be of the same kind as that used habitually by the lawyer who drew the will. He buys his paper, he says, from a firm in a city two thousand miles away.

A cousin of the accused, the beneficiary of the missing will, swears that the accused had a large gambling debt just at the time of the aunt's death. He exhibits a letter from his aunt in which she mentions that the young man has asked for money a few days previously. She writes that she has told him she intends to disinherit him because of his extravagance.

The valet of the accused says that the accused was at his own rooms in the city the night of the aunt's death, and that he received the news next morning with great surprise and sorrow.

The housekeeper swears that, when she was called to see the charred paper, she noticed finger prints in the dust on the mantel, and a burned match of the kind that the accused habitually used when in the house.

2. The question of providing school nurses is being argued by the Board of Education, or the Finance Board. One member says the city never has employed such nurses before. Very few cities employ them.

Another says the teachers ought to look after the health of the pupils.

A third thinks the money paid to the physician for examinations is wasted unless a nurse follows up the cases. The mothers are too ignorant to attend to the children properly. Since a doctor is hired, why not a nurse?

Another feels that parents of the better class do not want a visiting nurse telling them what to do.

The statistics of the Board of Health show that there were seven deaths from diphtheria in one school district in four weeks. It is argued that the employment of a nurse would have prevented the spread of contagion by the early discovery of the nature of the disease. In _____, where only one nurse was employed, the school attendance increased, the work of the pupils improved, and there were fewer deaths in the district. The winter was an exceptionally healthful one for both adults and children.

KINDS OF ARGUMENT

Argument is divided into three kinds, according to the result desired. If we are trying to prove that Tom Brown stole Lyman Black's horse, or that Rufus Godwin is the inventor of a rapid-fire shotgun, or that William Dean Howells is the writer of an anonymous novel running in the *Atlantic Monthly*, we are trying to establish a fact. Although there are two opinions, there must be some absolute fact existent, whether or not it may be laid bare.

Another kind aims to prove the truth of some theory or principle that has not yet been generally accepted, and therefore needs various proofs that will convince people of its truth.

The third kind, the most common, is that of policy. The girl tries to prove to her family that it would be more advantageous for her to take the course in stenography than to take the college preparatory course. The boy argues that the ball game with New Berne should be held on Friday instead of Saturday. The members of the Forum debate on whether the United States should build two battleships a year.

Exercise V.

Let six pupils, three on each side, give good, clear reasons

for their belief in regard to one of the following. For other subjects, see Exercise VII, page 81, 17-20.

1. Did the Norsemen discover America?
2. Did the Mexican Indians have a high civilization?
3. Did members of the union commit certain riotous acts attributed to them in the _____ strike?
4. Was Perkin Warbeck the heir to the British throne?
5. Were the doors locked at the time of the fire in the _____ factory?
6. Were the trainmen responsible for the recent accident on the _____ Railway?
7. Did Cook discover the North Pole?
8. Is Mrs. Humphrey Ward the author of _____?
9. Was the *Titanic* (or some other ship) going at nearly full speed when struck?
10. Did King Arthur of the Round Table really live?
11. Are moving pictures replacing acted plays as entertainment?
12. Are periodicals replacing books as general reading?

Exercise VI.

Hold a mock trial, civil or criminal. Study methods of procedure from text-books on civil government and, if possible, from attendance at court sessions. Have various pupils act as judge, witnesses, lawyers for the defendant and for the State or complainant, and jury. Let the witnesses be examined and cross-examined, and let the lawyers sum up.

Exercise VII.

Let the instructor suggest some subject from the literature lesson, on which there may be a difference of opinion, such as the justification of Brutus in killing Cæsar, the womanliness of Lady Macbeth, the advisability of representing the ghost visibly, in *Macbeth* or *Julius Cæsar*, the duty of Eppie to acknowledge her father, etc. Many subjects are given in the section on topics from College Entrance Requirements, pages 322-355. Let pupils speak in-

formally, first on one side, then on the other, till all have spoken who wish. Let the same pupil speak the second time to answer arguments or to add something, so long as the balance is kept. After all who have anything to say have spoken, two may sum up the arguments. Then the pupils may try to classify the various points under main headings.

PREPARING THE BRIEF

We often hear about lawyers working on briefs. The term is not, however, confined to the law. Everyone who speaks in public with the purpose of proving an assertion or of convincing others in any way, should master the technique of the brief. It is really a synopsis, in logical form, of what he wishes to say. The better the brief, the better the speech.

This skeleton of argument has many uses. It enables the maker to note his material, and to sift the valuable from the worthless. He may be sure that the ground of his discussion is fairly covered by what he has in hand. Then the brief helps him to classify the material, so that it will fall under the right heads, and can be presented clearly. He can compare the strength of the various points, test their pertinence as well as their validity, and arrange them in the order most effective. Read pages 31-34, on gathering material.

In order to present arguments to convince our opponents, we must have the **proposition** clearly in mind, and as clearly formulated. It should be concrete, concise, and specific. It should state the question beyond possibility of mistake or evasion. It should be such that either side, affirmative or negative, may be taken: that is, the subject must be a debatable one, with opportunity for giving good support to either side.

Exercise VIII.

Criticise and reformulate the following:

1. Protection as a factor in the high cost of living.
2. The hanging of murderers.
3. Are strikers justified in their actions?
4. Public schools versus private schools.
5. Direct primaries should be universally instituted.
6. Why the franchise should not be given to the D. U. Telephone Company.
7. A course in technique should be introduced above the sixth grade.
8. High schools and athletics.
9. Woman suffrage a cure for political evils.
10. The plumage of birds should not be allowed to decorate women's hats.
11. Should we have the honor or the proctor system?
12. The best way to elect senators, by popular vote.
13. Publication of election expenses is for the good of the state.

In general, the introduction to a formal argument is expository, leading to proofs. Long, formal arguments often begin with a history of the question. Some bill may have been brought up for consideration, in various forms, at intervals for many years. Changing conditions may have affected the form. The time is now ripe for action. Sometimes a simple statement of the reasons for present interest in the subject may be made. This should not merely be that many are interested in it, but should be specific. Perhaps some improvement is needed in your town. The newspapers are full of the subject. People are talking about it. An election is near, or a vote of the common council is to be taken.

Sometimes it is necessary to limit the subject in some

way. For instance, if the proposition were "the Board of Education should furnish free breakfast to school children," the speaker might limit it to the children of the poor, under twelve years of age, enrolled in the public, not parochial or settlement, schools. Should the subject be "Immigration should be restricted," he might limit it to that from European and Asiatic countries, as distinguished from this hemisphere.

Often there are terms likely to be used, which need strict definition or explanation. If a pupil argues that the honor system should be introduced into his school, he must not only state whether he includes all forms of student activity, or limits his remarks to the conducting of examinations; he must also tell what he means by "honor system." Is it merely that there shall be no instructors present during examinations, or that students shall report and try cases of cheating or of violation of the rules?

It often happens that some phases of a subject are not debatable because certain facts have long been accepted, or because general experience has proved to the satisfaction of most people that a certain point must be granted. In connection with the question, "should the honor system be adopted in our school," both sides would admit that a system, to be of value, must be practicable and workable. Possibly both would admit that there is cheating in most schools that do not have the honor system. These points, then, need not be argued.

The specific question, the point or points at issue, and the side taken by the speaker should then be stated. In considering the question of the building of new subways, is the point at issue whether they should be built, or whether the city, instead of private capital, should build them?

Exercise IX.

Study the following introductions. Note that they are expository in nature, though parts of arguments. See also page 375, Hughes' reply, and page 382.

1. *Resolved*, That Congress has power under the Constitution to appropriate money for the construction of post-roads, military and other roads, and of canals, and for the improvement of waterways.

Mr. BANKHEAD. Mr. President, the question that I am about to discuss is not a new one. The speedy delivery of the mails and the transportation and distribution of production have claimed the attention of our most enlightened and constructive statesmen since the organization of the Government. The transportation and distribution of products are of more importance than production itself. It is the surplus which we sell that makes us richer, adds to the bank accounts, and cancels the mortgage. What the producer consumes at home adds nothing to our wealth. It is that which he sells and transports to the market that makes him rich. If the cost of transportation to the producer is equal to the difference between the cost of production and the selling price there is no profit. Indeed, he is poorer, because his land is being exhausted, his team and his wagon wearing out, the deposits of his mine are being removed, his timber is being consumed, and his manufacturing plant is undergoing wear and tear, all without net results. In all classes of agriculture and in all lines of manufacturing and trade, economy of transportation is an important item in the amount of profit. There are three methods for the transportation of commerce—the railroads, waterways, and the common highways or dirt roads. I need not discuss the first method. It has been the subject of extensive discussion, legislation and judicial construction, with which we are all familiar. Transportation by water has been liberally provided for by Congress. The dirt roads, over which 90 per cent. of the internal commerce of the country must be moved first or last, have been sadly neglected.

The time has arrived when Congress must meet the great question

of national road improvement fairly and squarely and give it that thoughtful and serious consideration which it deserves.

“Congressional Record.”

2. Mr. CHAIRMAN: It is somewhat embarrassing to follow the exceedingly beautiful tribute to the principles of non-partisan democracy and the eloquent and patriotic peroration of the gentleman from Tennessee with the discussion of a prosaic subject. And yet the subject I propose to discuss has to do with the great principles of democracy. Those principles are founded on the recognition of the fundamental rights of men.

Starting with the proposition that all men are created free and equal and endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights, we proceed to lay down rules to govern the conduct of men, to the end that they may be secure in the enjoyment of equality and right. These rules have to do, among other things, with the use and enjoyment of property.

One of the rules laid down in this country at the beginning was that men should acquire property rights in real estate in fee simple, that it should begin at the stars and end in the center of the earth, and that when a man had acquired the right to landed property that right should be secure in all respects, not to be affected in any way in value except by due process of law.

In recent years there has been much agitation for a departure from our past public-land policy with regard to titles in real estate, and some people have assumed that this was a relatively unimportant and simple matter to be settled by a line or two of law here or there, and, while from their standpoint its effect would be beneficial, they seem never to have realized the effect would be very far-reaching. Any such view or opinion must necessarily arise from a lack of investigation or consideration of the problems involved.

I do not want to suggest here that we of the West are disturbed to an unwarranted degree touching our position as citizens of the Union. And yet, whether an American citizen lives in New York or Wyoming, in Colorado or Massachusetts, in Arkansas or Virginia, he has the right under the Constitution to occupy the same position in relation to the Federal Government as the citizen of

any other State. He has the right to demand that whatever may be the laws that affect the citizen in his relations with his Government shall apply alike to all.

Furthermore the newer States, having come into the Union on an equality with their sister States, have the right to demand that their permanent relations with the Federal Government shall be in all respects the same as that of the older States.

The Supreme Court held in 1845, in the case of *Pollard's Lessee v. Hagon*, that the United States had no municipal sovereignty, jurisdiction, or right of soil except for temporary purposes and to execute the trust which it held for the States and for their people.

The permanent reservation by the Federal Government of a portion of the fee or title to lands it disposes of creates a condition affecting both the citizen of the State and the State itself in a manner not consistent with the trust by which the Government holds public lands and tending to profoundly affect both the individual citizen and the State in their relations with the Federal Government and in a manner which deprives them of that equality to which the State and the individual is entitled under the Constitution.

From speech by REPRESENTATIVE MONDELL, *Limitation of Land Titles*. "Congressional Record."

The main proposition is the question to be argued. There must be two or three strong positive reasons why the proposition may, according to the side taken, be proved or confuted. For instance, it may be true from the point of view of two or three classes of people, or for physical, mental and moral reasons, or for social and economic reasons. The statements that these exist form, then, the **main headings**, which must, in turn, be supported by valid proofs. The main headings must be general enough to cover nearly all the available material. If there are unrelated bits of proof, which in themselves add little to the argument, it is better to leave them out than to confuse the classification; for the hearer must be made to keep

in mind the chief divisions. By careful statement the divisions may be made "mutually exclusive"; that is, they will not overlap. The more nearly of equal rank they are, the easier it will be to keep the argument well balanced, and to avoid giving the impression that parts of it are weak, and put in only because no better could be found.

Exercise X.

Let each member bring to class several main points for the proof of some one of the subjects given for Exercise XI. Let the class discuss the points suggested, criticizing for the qualities mentioned above.

Exercise XI.

Let two leaders appointed by the teacher pick their teams for affirmative and negative, and assign to each person some one phase of the subject for class argument.

1. Should the honor system be introduced into our school?
2. Should boys be asked to "tell on" each other in matters of violation of discipline?
3. Should the Board of Education determine the barring of secret societies from the school?
4. Should one blackball debar a candidate from a society?
5. Should a rejected candidate for admission to a school society be permitted to become again a candidate?
6. Should initiations into high school societies be secret?
7. Should books of the present time form part of the English course?
8. Should the class be allowed to determine what book from a certain group of those suggested by the College Entrance Board is to be studied?
9. Should high school students be allowed to select their own studies?
10. Should all schools have vocational courses, such as manual training, dressmaking, stenography?

11. Should pupils be supervised by a teacher during study periods?
12. Should pupils be allowed to study together during school hours?
13. Should moving pictures be used in the school work?
14. Should a girls' team in basket-ball play by boys' rules?
15. Should our school have a girls' baseball (or track) team?
16. Should a French or German or Debating Club be started in our school?
17. Should our school have a new athletic field, or larger playground, or new laboratory, or new heating apparatus, or a larger faculty?
18. Should national holidays be celebrated by school exercises, with required attendance on the holiday itself?
19. Should the sciences have more laboratory work in high school?
20. Should scholarship standards be required of candidates for athletic teams, or for societies?
21. Should the use of "ponies" be opposed by the teachers?
22. Should all pupils be required to salute the flag?
23. Should prizes be offered for punctuality?
24. Should examinations be required for entrance to high school or college?
25. Should vacation schools (or night schools) be provided by the Board of Education in our city?
26. Should our Board of Education provide public playgrounds?
27. Should school buildings be used for political (or religious) meetings?
28. Should the school buildings be used as social centers?
29. Is departmental instruction advisable in the 7th and 8th grades?
30. Should time be taken from that assigned for English classes for personal conferences between pupils and instructors?
31. Should students be allowed school credit for outside reading in connection with assigned work, or for editing of school papers, or for participation in dramatic performances?
32. Should students of high schools hold public dramatic performances?

33. Should agriculture be taught in our high school?
34. Should typewriting and stenography be taught in our high school?

SPECIMEN BRIEF

SHOULD SEPARATE CLASSES BE MAINTAINED
FOR DEFECTIVE CHILDREN?

Introduction.

- I. The request of the New York Board of Education for more money to carry on work with defective children has aroused much opposition,
 - A. Some considering the work outside of school province.
 - B. Some disapproving methods of present supervisor.
- II. By defective children we mean those abnormal,
 - A. In mind.
 - B. In body.
- III. All admit that:
 - A. Defectives exist in great numbers.
 - B. They have long been neglected.
- IV. The question is: Should or should not the schools maintain separate classes for defective children?

Brief proper.

I maintain that they should.

- I. The individuals in such classes are more benefited, for
 - A. They are saved from discouragement,
 1. Progressing with others in class.
 2. Free from reminders of abnormal stupidity.
 - B. They are enabled to understand better, for
 1. The work is slower.
 - a. Adapted to abnormal.
 2. Work more thorough.
 - a. Minor points explained, unnecessary to brighter students.

- C. Some defects may be remedied, for
 - 1. Special study is made of individuals,
 - a. For classification.
 - b. After segregation.
- II. The school work in normal classes is more efficient, for
 - A. Such classes progress faster, for
 - 1. Rate that of normal average.
 - 2. Less time wasted,
 - a. In answering foolish questions.
 - b. In repeating clear explanations for the slow.
 - B. Average of promotions is higher, for
 - 1. Each grade gets the preparation most generally needed.
 - a. More equal intelligence.
 - C. The teachers' work is more efficient, for
 - 1. Less time spent in explanation of obvious points.
 - 2. More helpful outside material given, in connection with required work.
 - 3. Less time and energy used for discipline.
- III. The argument that the state should care for defectives, in institutions, is not valid, for
 - A. Most defectives are not so extreme as to warrant, under present public opinion, commitment.
 - B. Most of them cannot be placed in such institutions, for
 - 1. Parents object.
 - 2. It cannot be legally forced.
 - 3. The state has not sufficient accommodations.
 - C. The public should not be forced to support as well as educate all these children, for
 - 1. Such expenses are already enormous.
 - 2. Most parents are able to support the children.
- IV. Such classes are a safeguard to the community, for
 - A. Children easily led astray are kept off the street.
 - B. Many once considered hopeless are saved to useful lives,
 - 1. Their sluggish brains awakened.
 - 2. Slight physical defects removed or overcome.

C. The general level of intelligence and education is raised, for

1. Some who would remain illiterate receive fair schooling.

Conclusion.

Since I have shown that classes for defective children are a help to those children, increase the efficiency of the schools, and benefit the community, and since I have refuted the argument that they should be left to the state, I maintain that such classes should be provided.

Although the larger divisions are most important for clearness, the subordinate ones are more so for the proof. For on them rests the value of the assertions made in the main headings. These **subheadings** must, then, help to prove the assertions under which they are used. If they do not, they are out of place, really proving some other main heading, or they are entirely irrelevant, or are valueless anywhere as proof, because illogical or poor evidence. The stronger these sub-points the better. Sometimes the evidence is good, and forms one of the proofs of the main proposition, but is used in the inverse relation; that is, the debater has tried to use the more general statement of evidence as a proof of the more definite. If a boy says, "My book is not in my desk, therefore someone has taken it," he is inverting the logical order of proof. If he says, "Someone has taken my book, for it is not in my desk," he is giving what he considers the proof of his assertion. He may state as additional support the fact that he knows he put it there an hour before. It may be necessary, however, to prove that he did. He may, then, say, "I know I put it there at that time, because I removed from it some papers I needed in the class this last hour." You will readily see that, though his knowledge that he put it there

does not help prove that it is not now there, it does, along with the fact that it is not now there, help prove that someone has taken it.

Someone has taken my book, for

It is not now in my desk.

I know I put it there an hour ago, for

I then removed from it, as I slipped it in, some
papers needed for the class of the past hour.

It is necessary, then, not only to give as many supports as possible to the assertion of each main point, but to carry the proof of each as far down as may be required to remove all doubt as to the basis for it. A mistake to be avoided is the confusion of the reason for an asserted condition being such, with the proof that it is so. A number of students, trying to prove that current periodicals are now read more than are novels, gave excellent reasons why many people prefer them, but not one proof, through statements as to sales, demand at libraries, the turning of authors to short-story writing, to prove the assertion made. Sometimes a fault lies merely in the form of a statement, so that what is really good and valid proof does not appear so. Reasoning and expression must alike be made to serve the purpose of the debater.

Exercise XII.

Let each student formulate a brief on one of the propositions that follow, having an introduction, two or three positive headings and as many sub-points as are necessary. Examine the briefs on pages 277, 282-287. It is desirable that both sides of each question be represented in the class.

Many local topics of current interest will occur to pupils.

Let the members of the class criticize form and logic, and test evidence, freely.

1. The city (or village) should own its waterworks.
2. The city should have garbage cared for by its departments (as an alternative to letting the contract to a company).
3. The people of the whole city (instead of those owning property on certain streets) should pay for new paving.
4. The people of the whole city should be taxed for new water and sewage pipe extension.
5. The city appointive offices should all be under civil service rules.
6. The city (or village) should regulate all industries within its borders.
7. The city (or village) should regulate noise.
8. The city should regulate height (as well as material, etc.) of new buildings.
9. The city should set apart certain streets to be free from all but light traffic.
10. The city (or village) should limit the water used by house dwellers, by meters (or some other method).
11. The city should regulate amusements.
12. The Board of Health should be paid.
13. The Board of Education should be paid.
14. Women should be appointed as members of the School Board.
15. Firemen should be paid.
16. The city should limit the price of gas or electricity furnished by private corporations.
17. The city should be paid for street railway and other franchises.
18. The city should regulate the giving of free car transfers.
19. The city (as distinguished from private capital) should build new transportation lines when needed.
20. The city (or village) should forbid peddling without license.
21. The city should establish and maintain free public hospitals.
22. This city (or village) should purchase the _____ site for a park.
23. This city (or village) should accept the offer of _____ for a library (or other public building).
24. The city should condemn, as unsafe, the bridge at _____ (or any other dangerous structure).

25. The city (or village) should open a street at _____.
26. The city (or village) should provide free band (or other) concerts.
27. The city (or village) should establish and maintain a public lecture course (or museum).
28. The city (or village) should bear the expense of abolishing the grade crossing at _____.
29. The city (or village) should grant the franchise asked by _____.
30. The Common Council should pass an ordinance forbidding coasting on certain streets (or any other dangerous or annoying practice).
31. The city (or village) should provide for a new school building at _____.
32. An investigation of the water supply (or milk supply, or any other possible menace) should be made by the city.
33. The city (or village) should accept the proffered aid of _____ organization in _____.

SPECIMEN BRIEFS

SHOULD THE CITY FURNISH WORK FOR THE UNEMPLOYED?

Introduction.

- I. In a great city like New York one is appalled by the large number of people one sees who are evidently in need of employment.
- II. In our discussion we shall consider only those who have no opportunity nor prospect of obtaining work.
- III. Everyone admits that:
 - A. Owing to large immigration and other causes, the supply of workingmen is larger than the demand.
 - B. It is the duty of the city to provide so far as possible for the welfare of those who make it up.
- IV. The question is then resolved to: Will the city be doing the people the greatest service in furnishing work for the unemployed?

Brief proper.

I maintain that the city will be doing the people the greatest service in furnishing work for the unemployed.

I. The city will benefit the employed in protecting them from the disadvantages which result from the existence of a large body of unemployed, for

A. The unemployed who beg are a nuisance, for

1. It is often a trouble to stop to get out money for them.
2. They often importune in annoying fashion, for
 - a. If one gives, they accost again.
 - b. If one does not give, they persist.
3. One often feels it undesirable to give to beggars, for
 - a. One is encouraging laziness and dependence, for
 - (1) It is impossible to tell whether these beggars are really needy or worthy.

B. The unemployed are a menace, for

1. They are often driven to steal,
 - a. In desperation.
 - b. To obtain food for their families.
2. They are even driven to injuring others, for
 - a. They may do this in attempt to steal.
 - b. They may be incited to revenge
 - (1) Against one who refuses employment.
 - (2) Against a successful competitor.

C. The unemployed are a disadvantage in the business world, for

1. They cheapen labor, for
 - a. They offer to work for less than a just wage.
 - (1) To obtain a chance of life.
 - b. Employers refuse raise of wages,
 - (1) Knowing they can fill places cheaply
 - (2) Knowing employees will not risk being in competition with many unemployed.

II. The city owes work to the unemployed, for

- A. It is the duty of the city to provide for everything beneficial to its large lower classes, for
 1. The city is the father of its people,
 - a. As protector.
 - b. As controller of acts.
 - c. As provider of common necessities.
 2. The city can best help the unemployed by giving them work, for
 1. It benefits them directly, for
 - a. It benefits those who want to work,
 - (1) Giving opportunity to earn honest livelihood.
 - (2) Preserving their self-respect and independence.
 - b. It really benefits those who do not want to work, for
 - (1) They will be forced to a right method of obtaining a living, for
 - (a) They can no longer get money by begging, for
 1. People will know they are unwilling to work.
 2. It benefits their children, for
 - a. It benefits them physically, for
 - (1) They can then be well fed.
 - b. It benefits them mentally, for
 - (1) Their parents can give them a better education.
 - (a) Not needing services at work.
 - (b) Having money for clothes, etc.
 - c. It benefits them morally, for
 - (1) The child whose father is unemployed is not furnished a good example or brought up in a wholesome atmosphere.

III. My opponent's argument that this providing of work would be too great an expense to the city is not valid, for

A. The unemployed are a great expense as it is, for

1. Many of them are supported in public institutions or by some form of public charity.
2. Many of them have to be cared for in hospitals or asylums.
3. Many are kept in prisons,
 - a. Often arrested for vagrancy.
 - b. Often arrested for crimes caused by manner of life.

B. At least, in providing work for them, the city would be getting some return for its money, for

1. They could be employed on public works.

Conclusion.

Since I have shown that the furnishing of work for the unemployed by the city would be of advantage to the employed and to the unemployed, and have disproved the argument of too great expense, the city should furnish work for the unemployed.—*Student's brief*.

IS THE BARGAIN SALE A REAL BENEFIT TO THE MERCHANT?

I. The frequent advertisements of bargain sales make one wonder whether they are of real value to the merchant.

II. By a bargain sale we understand a sale in a store where goods are offered at less, supposedly, than usual rates.

III. Everyone admits that:

- A. A merchant prefers to sell all his stock at rather low price than part of it at a higher one.
- B. A merchant desires to get rid of his stock as quickly as possible.

IV. The question is then resolved to: Is the bargain sale of the greatest benefit, immediately and ultimately, to the merchant in carrying on the business of his store?

Brief Proper.

I maintain that the bargain sale is not of real benefit to the merchant, for

1. The bargain sale is not beneficial financially, for
 - A. In order to make the sale successful, goods must be offered at a rate too low for profit, for
 1. Otherwise they would not draw people, for
 - a. Bargain hunters want "something for nothing."
 - B. In such sales, the stock is often considerably damaged, for
 1. The bargain articles are often rendered unsalable afterward, for
 - a. They are crushed and soiled by much handling, for
 - (1) They must be where the people can get at them
 - (a) for free examination.
 - (b) for saving of saleswoman's time in waiting on crowds.
 2. Other articles are injured, for
 - a. They are roughly handled, for
 - (1) The typical bargain hunter cares for nothing but her own interests.
 - (2) She often forgets both her manners and self-control while on a shopping expedition.
 - (3) She demands to see everything possible.
 - II. The belief that bargain sales lead the people drawn there by them to other purchases is unfounded, for
 - A. The confirmed bargain hunter will not buy largely unless apparent special inducements are offered, for
 1. She thinks she is practicing economy in this.
 2. She flatters herself that she is very acute in tracing bargains.

B. The bargain customer never becomes a steady patron of the store, for

1. She is guided in her buying by the newspapers.
2. She cares more for specials than for the steady effort of a store to give satisfaction.

III. The custom of having bargain sales lowers the standing of a store, for

A. The best class of customers avoid it, for

1. They do not want cheap, soiled goods.
2. They do not readily believe in "bargains,"
 - a. Thinking that the goods are old.
 - b. Thinking that the so-called reductions are often false.
3. They do not like the conditions of such sales:
 - a. Crowds.
 - b. Long waits.

B. Such sales bring about a reputation that is undesirable, for

1. Stores having these sales frequently soon become known as "cheap stores."
2. They are known as places frequented by an undesirable class of the public.
3. They are known by their poorest stock, instead of by their average stock.
4. They are known for poor service under bad conditions, instead of good service under average conditions.

Conclusion.

I. Since the bargain sale is not of financial benefit, since the argument that it draws custom for other goods is unfounded, and since it lowers the standing of the store, I conclude that it is not of real benefit to the merchant.

II. The comfort of many would be increased by its abolition,

- A. That of the saleswomen.
- B. That of the general shopping public.—*Student's brief.*

It will seem to the pupils who have formulated briefs on either side of any of the propositions suggested above that their opponents have some weak point, either as a main heading or a subordinate one. They should then try to refute that weak point, to strengthen their own side. **Refutation** can be successfully employed only when a debater knows what his opponents have tried to prove. Therefore, if he has been wise, he has studied the other side of the question as thoroughly as his own, to know just what his opponent has as material for proof of any possible point. Then, when he hears the argument, he is ready to demolish it.

Perhaps some assertion made in proof may have to do with something either irrelevant to the question at issue or of little value in comparison with some fact on the other side. Perhaps it is illogical or unreasonable. If an argument from analogy, the analogy may be a false one when examined carefully. The instance cited may be an extreme or isolated one, of no value in any other case. The theory used in support of some point may not be applicable to this case. The statements quoted may be prejudiced, or one-sided, or from unreliable authority. Any one of these flaws will, when brought to the attention of the hearers, weaken the force of the argument as a whole, and thereby strengthen the side attacking it.

Do not try to attack the entire argument. You are really doing that by the statement of the side you have taken. Select the strongest one of the opponent's points that can be successfully demolished, and overthrow that. In a long argument two points may be refuted.

EXAMPLES OF REFUTATION

1. I desire to call attention to the fundamental error that underlies the argument of our distinguished justice from Washington and of the distinguished dean from the Law School at New Haven. Their fundamental error is that they are drawing analogy between the government, state and national, and the government of our Church. A partial error in that analogy has already been pointed out, the error cited by Dr. Buckley, when he said that the General Conference has supreme powers except where checked by restrictive rules and the national government has only such powers as are specifically granted unto it. But the failure of the analogy goes deeper than that. The reason for the very careful and excessively minute guarding of individual rights in the state is this, that in the hands of the state is placed the sword of force. You hold your life, you hold your liberty, you hold your property at the disposal of the political power in the state or nation. You do not hold life, or liberty, or property at the disposal of the Church. And because the Church is differently constituted and proceeds upon a different basis, it holds no sword of force. Every member in the Church is there by voluntary accession; he comes of his own choice. If he should unfortunately be even expelled from the Church, it is not like that unfortunate expulsion which is provided by a criminal court, that sends a man out from the control of political power into eternity. The worst we could do would be to send him into a Presbyterian or Baptist or some other church. The distinction is a vital one. It runs through the whole construction of our governmental policy. Our appeal is to persuasion; it is to the Gospel. It is, as the gentleman from Baltimore said, to the grace of the Lord Jesus Christ. And for that reason, sir, there is a wide and deep and valid distinction between the procedure in the two cases. Arguments drawn from that analogy, then, fall to the ground because there is not the same requirement for that protection of individual rights.

From speech by E. J. KULP, in General Conference of M. E. Church, 1912. "Christian Advocate."

2. Much stress has been laid upon the dependence of the Bishops on "second-hand information" in the making of appointments. But how many more removes from personal knowledge will be that information upon which a large majority of the General Conference must cast their votes for Bishops? Are not all men, indeed, dependent on second-hand information for almost every decision of life? How little personal knowledge of men enters into governmental appointments. Think of our judges scouring the country in order to secure personal knowledge of men or causes involved in litigation. Discredit second-hand information, and we close our schools, bar all text-books of science, silence music, arrest all business, disqualify all the professions, dispense with all newspapers, destroy the value of history, invalidate the appeal based upon religious testimony—in short, banish all facts not personally witnessed and verified, and jar the very planets off the map of the heavens! What chaos would reign if suddenly all second-hand, or even twentieth-hand, information were discredited, and every man and woman should perforce become an original investigator! Think of it, you pilgrims who cannot get out of this city without second-hand information. For the purpose of adjusting appointments we regard the information given by a district superintendent personally and officially responsible for his observations, and offered in the presence of his colleagues and within call of the preachers and churches represented, as far more reliable than that otherwise possessed.

From speech in General Conference of M. E. Church, 1912.
"Christian Advocate."

3. Some think it is a vast scheme. Why, it is not vast at all. It would be just as easy to do it that way as to do it in the poorhouse and in the other way. The tax on the production of the world would do that very thing—pay everybody who loses a finger or an arm or a leg, those who get sick, those who get too old to work any longer. The tax that would take care of these people without any lawsuits or contentions or trouble would be a very small tax, after all, on the great body of goods produced in this country.

From speech by Mayor WILLIAM J. GAYNOR advocating government support of all charities.

4. Now, Mr. Chairman, I wish to call the attention of this committee to one or two pregnant facts. As I was proceeding to point out when my time expired, it is claimed in the report of the committee accompanying this bill that there are schools located on the Indian reservations and supported by the Government at which the Indian children can be taught all the branches which are taught at Hampton, and much cheaper. Stress is laid in this report on the fact that the distance to be traveled by the Indian children from the reservation to Hampton is very great and therefore entails considerable cost to the Government. I am informed, and I believe the statement cannot be questioned, that the normal courses at one time taught at the reservation schools are no longer taught there, and that it is not now pretended in any quarter that the Indian students at the reservation schools are trained in the art of teaching. There is not, I am told, a reservation school which attempts even to fit its scholars for teaching. So much, then, for the claim that the reservation schools are equipped to take the place of the Hampton school. Indeed, Mr. Chairman, there is no school in the United States which has the same appliances and which can afford the same facilities for giving Indian children normal, industrial, and agricultural education. This much must be conceded, I think. No less a distinguished educator than Dr. Eliot, late president of the great University of Harvard, is upon record as saying that there was no school, no university in America which presented the same or an equal combination of academic and industrial teaching as Hampton, and Dr. Gilman, president of the great University of Johns Hopkins, has declared that we could better spare any two universities in the United States than the Hampton Institute, and Gov. Woodrow Wilson, when president of Princeton University, indorsed the Hampton school in terms of commendation and praise scarcely less strong. I think, therefore, we may dismiss the proposition that there is any other school in the country possessing equal facilities with those of the Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute, where the Indian student can receive the training of which he stands in the greatest need.

From speech by REPRESENTATIVE JONES on Indian Appropriation Bill. "Congressional Record."

5. Again it is urged that the parcel post will drive the exclusively country merchant out of business—the merchant who trades in the small villages. I cannot see that this will happen; but, on the contrary, I believe it will help him. To-day he handles a small stock and his customers are confined to the residents of his immediate vicinity. His stock is not necessarily large. There is no need that it should be big, consequently he makes a small profit and is satisfied. But institute the parcel post on his rural route, and, with the telephone, watch his business increase. The trade he enjoyed before will not leave him. His old customers will remain and trade with him just as they did before, and in addition will bring to him their produce, so that he can in turn trade with the resident of the larger town or city. In other words, the country merchant who is up to date will extend his former small trade, heretofore confined to his small community, by getting in touch with various householders of the larger towns and cities, and daily, if necessary, furnish them with the necessities of life, fresh, pure, and unstored. It will be but a simple process of expansion, and the live, active American storekeeper will readily adapt himself to the changed conditions and establish a trade which will greatly exceed his fondest dreams. Moreover, this merchant, of necessity, purchases in small quantities. He buys from a jobber or a merchant in a larger adjoining town who carries a larger stock with a greater assortment. He will, under the parcel post, write or telephone, and in a day replenish his stock, outside of large orders for groceries and like articles, at a cost much below the price he now pays in freight or expressage, with the additional drayage for the time lost in using his own conveyance.

Postmaster-General Meyer, in 1908, said:

The free rural delivery has improved materially and intellectually the life of great numbers of the farmers and those living in rural communities. Is it too much to ask that the department shall make a further use of this important system, a use which, while adding appreciably to the postal revenues, will directly and vitally benefit every man, woman, and child within reach of a rural route? The countryman would have the necessities of life delivered at his gate at an average cost of 2 cents a pound, thereby facilitating and

increasing consumption. This would mean augmentation of the trade of the thousands of country merchants. The commercial traveler should appreciate the advantages of this system; it would increase his orders, because the country merchant buys from the jobber or wholesaler. Every component part of our commercial system would feel the effects of an increased prosperity.

What the Postmaster-General said in 1908 is true to a greater degree to-day.

From speech by CONGRESSMAN GRAGG on Parcel Post section of Postal bill. "Congressional Record."

Remember that proof is always stronger than disproof, and do not try to lay more stress on what is, at best, negative.

It is never courteous or "good form" to accuse your opponent of falsehood or of bad faith. His reasoning is weak, his point not well taken, or untenable, or beside the question, or based on erroneous information, but he must be presumed to be honorable.

The assertion that some point is valueless, for whatever reason, must be proved just as carefully as any positive statement.

Exercise XIII.

Formulate, according to the method illustrated in the specimen briefs on pages 277, 282 and 285, a refutation of some point made by your opponent, for one of the propositions in Exercise XII, page 280 f.

Then, as a conclusion, summarize concisely, as in the forms on pages 279, 285, 287, the main points in your brief, including the refutation.

METHOD OF DEBATE

A debate may be participated in by two, four, or six people, if it be a formal one. Douglas and Lincoln, when candidates for the United States senatorship, went through

the state, appearing together in debates that have become classic. In formal debates it is common to have six speakers, three on each side. In the practical affairs of life, in class elections, committee meetings, board and directors' meetings, and in legislative assemblies, debates are participated in by many persons on each side, who add points or disprove others, as opportunity is afforded. It is for this lively, keen, and decisive, though extemporaneous form, that we must prepare eventually. But formal practice is the best preparation.

We shall suppose that six persons have been chosen to debate before the school. The leader on each side must make the arrangements. When one team challenges another, it is the custom for the challenged team to have the choice of sides. It may, however, be decided by lot. When possible, it is best for the leader to apportion to each member of his team the part he shall take. The preparation must, of course, be carefully made. Both sides of the question should receive equal attention. Some prefer to debate on the side which they do not personally favor, because of the valuable practice. It is wise, at any rate, to draw up a brief on each side, to test both, and be ready for any argument of the opponents.

The first speaker is always for the affirmative. He opens the debate with all the material necessary for a clear understanding of the question, in expository form. He states the proposition in general, gives the origin or history of the question, limits or defines it, sets aside irrelevant issues or those about which there is no dispute, and states the point at issue and the side he represents. He may then deliver the first part of the argument, covering one chief division. He is followed by the speaker for the negative who has been assigned to the first section of that argument.

The second speaker for the affirmative takes up the second main division, and may also refute some point made by the first speaker for the negative. The second speaker for the negative then does the same for his side. The third on each side takes up the final division.

In all formal debates the speakers are limited to a definite time for each, and are usually warned by a bell before time is called. In some, each speaker is allowed a few minutes for rebuttal, after all have spoken once. In others, one on each side is allowed to take the floor again for rebuttal. The last speaker on each side should summarize briefly, as part of his conclusion, the points of all speakers on his side.

Whether in single argument or debate, the arrangement of main heads must be carefully considered. There are several rules, no one of which always holds good. In fact, they often conflict. Obviously, the most natural, coherent, and logical order should be followed unless there is good reason for another. In general, the strongest point makes a good climax, the next in strength serves well at the beginning, and the weakest may be in the middle. For this reason, the refutation, always weaker than a positive argument, should usually come in the middle. If, however, the first speaker on the negative can make a telling point by first refuting what the speaker for the affirmative has just said, he should not hesitate to do so before giving positive proof. Sometimes a point the weakest in logic may be used with the most telling effect at the end, to leave a lasting impression, through sentiment or vivid portrayal, on the audience. The order that seems best adapted to the subject and to the occasion must be used.

Brethren: It would not be fair that I should take advantage of your generosity. I shall endeavor to close up the argument in a

shorter time than you have allowed me. I stated at the outset that the court had been misrepresented, that powers were attributed to it of which the framers of it never dreamed. It was represented as some big bogey standing with fearful menace over a General Conference that does not have strength enough to assert its rights. It has been represented in various ways. One dear brother seemed to challenge that statement when he got up, but I appeal to you if his speech was not a shining example of the accuracy of that statement. Then it was put forward by my eminent friend, Dr. Buckley, that that great Conference in 1852, which took up the matter of the request of the bishops for the forming of a court just such as is here described—he read from his paper that it was only promotive of confusion and of disorder, and of setting up a third house, and all that. Why did he not read the whole of that paper? Why did he read three lines and leave out this paragraph, which I will read to you? "They had the subject under consideration and are fully of the opinion that provision should be made at this time for such a department in the general administration of the Methodist Episcopal Church; the necessity of some conservative power to guard the constitutional acts of the General Conference and preserve the limitations and restrictive rules by which it is to be governed has been seen and felt by a large portion of the Church ever since the General Conference was made a representative body."

I wish to say that the supreme court is not for the purpose of restraining the rights or the privileges of the General Conferences as its sole purpose. What does it do? It does everything that your Judiciary Committee does now. If you should make this Judiciary Committee permanent, you would have this supreme court and nothing more, except in this particular, and that particular lies in its finality; but as a matter of fact the findings of the Judiciary Committee are now practically final. As a matter of history I think it is true that only once in twelve years have the findings of that committee been rejected by the General Conference. Now, during the General Conferences this court does not sit in perpetual session, as one speaker said from this platform; it comes together only when there is need for it, just as courts of appeal

throughout the Church convene now only when the emergencies arise. But I submit to you if it is not wise that there should be a permanent court that may be called together any time to study and to decide upon the appeals which come up from an ever-enlarging Church, and from a Church which by reason of its large increase in members becomes more complex every day by the clash of the units composing the whole. Then, at the General Conference, those who are members of the Judiciary are members of this body; they are in the various committees, they have not the time to devote care and attention to the complex cases that come up before them.

Rebuttal in debate on establishment of a church court, General Conference of M. E. Church, 1912. Rev. R. J. COOKE.

EXAMPLES OF CONCLUSION IN ARGUMENT

1. Now, I owe to the Members of the House a sincere apology for the time I have taken. But this is not a little subject. It is a most important subject. In my judgment it is charged with matter of the gravest national moment to our country. When we have reached a condition where workmen, working at full time and at full pay on wages larger, perhaps, than they have ever received before, are yet unable to make both ends meet because of the high cost of living, I say you are fronting a situation that may be charged with peril to this country.

I am not one of those who think that any one line of treatment or any one remedy is going to cure even all the remediable ills of society. I do not say that this, even if carried out in its most perfect conception, would cure all the ills of society, or even cure the whole aggravated situation associated with the high cost of living. But I do say this, gentlemen, that the Goeke bill comes closer to cutting in two the prices of the vital necessities of life on the workman's table than any measure that has yet come to my notice.

It has been said that never in the history of this country has a great crisis arisen when American statesmanship and patriotism were not there to meet it in an adequate way. I pray God that before the stability of this country has been put in jeopardy, as

now threatens within 10 years, that statesmanship and that patriotic spirit may not fail us on this subject.

Conclusion of remarks on the *Parcel Post Bill* as related to the costs of living. REPRESENTATIVE LEWIS. "Congressional Record."

2. In three ways, then, the American woman is fitted specially to cope with the modern industrial situation. First, she will inevitably take the natural, human point of view on all questions. Second, she will recognize the value of encouraging spontaneity of accomplishment in children. Third, in the part of the working woman she will accept quite simply and sanely the fact of shop work, desiring only that conditions be suitable. In all three directions she will accomplish the desired result of simplifying life or reducing it to its finest significance.

Conclusion of speech at Faneuil Hall by JANE ADDAMS.

3. Mr. Speaker, I regard this treaty, whether it is so intended by its proponents or not, as the initial step in the direction of free trade. It may be a good thing for the people of my district, but I do not believe it; I am from Pike County, Ky., and you will have to "show me" before I do believe it. I am an Abraham Lincoln-James G. Blaine-William McKinley Republican. I was born a protectionist and raised a protectionist, and I do not propose to go back on my raisin' at this late date. I believe that this treaty is un-Republican, and I shall vote against it.

Conclusion of speech on *Reciprocity with Canada*. REPRESENTATIVE JOHN W. LANGLEY. "Congressional Record."

4. This congress should, above all things, emphasize the great importance of good roads to and from the farms of the country. It should encourage State and National aid to good roads, so as to bring to the expenditure on road building the greatest degree of intelligence and efficiency and concentrated effort. This is, perhaps, the most important factor of all in making the farm more desirable to the people, in making the farm more attractive, in making it more remunerative, and giving to it those elements which

are necessary and essential to peace of mind and to the prosperity and happiness of the farmer.

Conclusion of speech on *Bill for National Roads*. SENATOR OWEN. "Congressional Record."

Some people ridicule the idea of high school boys and girls debating on the great political or national questions of the day. Of course none of us who has not spent years studying such problems can hope to master them in a few days or weeks, or to do justice to them from the school platform. But should that fact forbid our thinking about them as best we can, with whatever material is available as a basis? We all ought to know, as a matter of common intelligence, what is going on in state and nation. The same people who do not want us to discuss large affairs are much shocked at the lack of knowledge of current topics shown by the average boy or girl. Perhaps we shall know more about them if we try to talk about them. Then, too, the people of the colleges and of the world at large say that the younger generation does no thinking. Are we not likely to think about subjects worth while if they are made a part of our daily work? The boys, and probably also the girls, now in our schools will be voters in a few years. Some of the questions before the voters and the legislators now will again come before the voters of ten years hence, in modified form. The more we have thought and talked about them, the better able we shall be to form right opinions and act for the best when these or new questions come up for settlement. Because we want to be intelligent members of society, and because we ought to become useful citizens, we are justified in arguing large questions.

Let two leaders appointed by the instructor arrange for a debate before the school, or for graduation, or for a pub-

lic entertainment under the auspices of the school. Several weeks, at least, should be taken for the gathering of material, the formulating of briefs, and the practice of expression. For the latter examine the arguments by ex-President Taft and Congressman Redfield beginning on pages 301 and 304.

Subjects of current interest, discussed in the newspapers and periodicals and by the people, should, preferably, be chosen. The following are merely suggestive. (See page 339.)

1. The parcel post is practicable in its present form.
2. The postal banks should pay a higher rate of interest.
3. Congress should control by laws the interstate commerce in intoxicating liquors.
4. Letter postage should be reduced.
5. Second-class postage rates should be increased.
6. The civil service should include consulships.
7. The U. S. government should establish a training school for the diplomatic service.
8. This state should have a state police force. (cf. Pennsylvania and Ireland).
9. The national government (instead of the state government) should conserve the forests.
10. The national government should provide for good roads.
11. The national government should pay for the irrigation of western lands.
12. The government should open all lands still held by the Indians.
13. The Indians should be on a par, as citizens, with white men.
14. Immigration should be farther restricted.
15. The Chinese Exclusion Act should be repealed.
16. An educational qualification should be required of voters.
17. All voters should have the right to vote on public improvements.
18. Franchises should be taxed by the state.

19. Direct primaries should be established in every state.
20. The ballot should be made less complex.
21. Ten per cent of the voters should be able to initiate legislation.
22. All legislation in the states should be submitted to the people for ratification.
23. The initiative, referendum, and recall are in accordance with long accepted usage.
24. Women should be allowed to determine woman suffrage by separate vote.
25. The national government should regulate wages and hours of labor.
26. The government should establish a permanent bureau for settlement of labor disputes.
27. The United States should regulate all ocean steamers entering her ports.
28. The State should care for all defectives.
29. The State should provide employment agencies.
30. The State should procure employment for ex-convicts.
31. The State should provide old-age pensions.
32. The State should provide for insurance (as in Connecticut, or England).
33. The State should provide incomes for poor widows with children.
34. The State (or City) should provide social workers as it does teachers.
35. The State should regulate "private banks."

SPECIMENS OF ARGUMENT

**THE OPERATION OF THE EXECUTIVE AND LEGISLATIVE BRANCHES
SHOULD BE BROUGHT TOGETHER**

It is said that the office of President is the most powerful in the world, because under the Constitution its occupant really can exercise more discretion than an emperor or king exercises in any of the governments of modern Europe. I am not disposed to question this as a matter of reasoning from the actual power given the President in the Constitutional division of governmental functions, but

I am bound to say that the consciousness of such power is rarely, if ever, present in the mind of the ordinary individual acting as President, because what chiefly stares him in the face in carrying out any plan of his is the limitation upon the power and not its extent. Of course, there are happy individuals who are able entirely to ignore those limitations both in mind and practice, and as to them the result may be different. But to one whose training and profession is subordinate to law the intoxication of power rapidly sobers off in the knowledge of its restrictions and under the prompt reminder of an ever-present and a not always considerate press, as well as by the kindly suggestions that not infrequently come from that hall of Congress in which impeachments are intimated and that smaller chamber in which they are tried.

In these days of progress, reform, uplift, and improvement a man does not show himself abreast of the age unless he has some changes to suggest. It is the recommended change that marks his being up to date. It may be a change only for the sake of change, but it is responsive to a public demand, and therefore let's propose it.

A suggestion I would make is that legislative steps be taken, for there is nothing in the Constitution to forbid it, bringing more closely together the operation of the executive and legislative branches. The studied effort in which we maintain these branches rigidly separate is, I think, a mistake. I would not add any more actual power to the executive in legislative matters, nor would I give the legislative any more actual power in executive matters. The veto on the one hand and the confirmation of appointments and the ratification of treaties on the other, I would not change. But it does seem to me that they need not be at arm's length, as they are now are under our present system. It has been proposed twice in our history, after the fullest consideration by some of the wisest statesmen we have ever had, to pass a law giving to each department head a seat in the Senate and in the House, and a right to enter into the discussion of proposed legislation in either of the national legislative bodies. This would keep Congress much better informed as to the actual conditions in the executive departments.

It would keep the department heads on the *qui vive* with reference to their knowledge of their own departments and their ability to answer appropriate questions in respect to them. It would necessitate the appointment to the Cabinet of men used to debate and to defend their positions, and it would offer an opportunity for the public to judge of the Executive and his government much more justly and much more quickly than under our present system. The ignorance that Congress at times has of what is actually going on in the executive departments and the fact that hours of debate and pages of The Congressional Record might be avoided by the answer to a single question by a competent Cabinet officer on the floor of either House is frequently brought sharply to the attention of competent observers.

I think, too, it might, perhaps, promote the amenities between the two branches if this system were introduced. The rules of the two Houses, as I am advised, forbid the use of abusive language by one member against another, and by a member of one House against the other House or its members. A somewhat close examination of the rules, however, of both Houses does not show that there is any limitation upon the parliamentary character of the language which may be directed against the President. As to him the members pursue their own sweet will, and that sometimes leads them into language and epithetical description of the Chief Executive that could hardly be called complimentary. If members of the Cabinet were allowed the floor, their very presence would suggest, in the possibility of reply, moderation in discussing the Administration, which does not now at all times prevail.

The strongest reason for advocating this change, however, is that the influence the Executive shall have in shaping legislation shall be more in harmony with the responsibility that the people hold him to in respect to it. He is the head of the party that elected him, and as such, if Congress is controlled by the same political party, as it generally is, he is looked to to shape the Congressional policy and to secure the passage of the statutes which the party platform has promised. Now, with such a burden on him, he ought to have a greater means of bringing about what he wishes in the

character of the legislation to be considered by Congress, and greater powers of persuasion to secure the adoption of such legislation than those which the mere right to send messages and the mere opportunity of personal consultation with leading members of the House and Senate give him. I doubt not that the presence of able Cabinet officers on the floor of each House would give greater harmony of plan for the conduct of public business in both Houses, and would secure much more valuable legislation in accordance with party plans than we have now. On the other hand, the system would enable Congress to come closer to the Executive, and pry more effectively into each act and compel a disclosure of the reasons justifying it immediately at the time of the act, and keep the public more quickly advised by the direct questions of hostile critics, which must be answered, of the progress of business under Executive auspices.

Of course this is not the complete English system, because it does not give to the Cabinet the power to lead and control legislative action, as the British Government may in Parliament. But it combines so much of that which is valuable, and, as it can be done by a mere act of Congress, I think it ought to be tried.

Extract from speech by PRESIDENT TAFT before the Lotus Club, Nov. 16, 1912. By permission.

THE HOURS OF MAIL-CARRIERS

MR. CHAIRMAN: I desire to acknowledge the courtesy of the gentleman from Massachusetts who has kindly yielded that I may speak at this particular moment, having engagements later in the day. As an Irish friend of mine said, I want to say before I commence that I agree most heartily with the gentleman from Illinois in his regret that this bill does not yet provide for the promotion and advancement of the laborers employed in the Post Office Department. I hope it will ultimately come so to do, and I shall be glad to join with anyone who will bring that about. I think it is the duty of the United States Government to be a model employer, and that it should open the door of opportunity to its humblest servants as well as to those higher in its service.

I am sure also that the gentleman from Illinois left unsaid one-half of what he had in mind when he spoke of the effect of the conditions of department-store employment and wages upon the young women in those stores. The other half I am sure he meant to say, and for him and in his behalf I want to say it in a moment or two now. I personally know four great department stores, one in Philadelphia, one in New York, one in Brooklyn, and one in Boston, the proprietors of which strain every nerve for the care of their working girls. On the minds of these men the rate of wages and the uplift of those girls are a moral charge. It never leaves their thought. One of them said to me one day: "Mr. Redfield, I would like to advance my 6,000 girls 50 cents a week, but I do not know now where the \$156,000 per year that that would cost is to come from." But by opportunity for promotion, and in every way he could do it, he strove to uplift those girls. And in like manner I know men in other cities who have esteemed it a privilege and a duty to strive to carry out the uplift of their employees to the full.

I want to speak, however, this afternoon upon section 5 of this bill, which has relation to the hours of work of the letter carriers, and to place before the committee certain facts collected by a sub-committee, of which I was chairman, a few weeks ago in the investigation of the post office at Brooklyn, N. Y. These facts have not heretofore been made public. They have not yet appeared in the report of the subcommittee, because the matter was so large it has not been possible to get that report prepared, but they should be before the House in the discussion of this bill, which is directly affected by them. There are three distinct matters of which I wish to speak which affect the letter-carrier force in our great post offices. These are the matter of hours, the matter of the speed or the nervous tension under which the men work, and the matter of the weight those men carry. On two of these matters I have before me official information coming from the department itself and acknowledged to be correct by the men themselves. I will first take up the question of hours, then, briefly, to which section 5 refers. I have in my hand the time cards of certain of the force in the general post office and in four stations in the city of Brooklyn

during the latter part of February, 1912, and I read briefly from these cards, as it would be difficult to insert them in the RECORD without reading because of their peculiar form. I find the following facts relating to what are known as the "long tours" on the alternate weeks: One week these men work the straight eight hours. Their partners the following week work eight hours, and the man who this week works eight hours, next week works what is called the "long tour." This results that on the 24th of February Mr. Paul A. Graw, attached to Station B of the Brooklyn post office, reported for duty at 5.45 a. m. and left duty finally for the night at 7.09 p. m. There is, of course, as you know, what is known as the midday "swing." That is, he actually worked from 5.45 in the morning until 9.57, when he had a swing, and he reported again for duty at 3.15, and left at 7.09 p. m., or 8 hours and 6 minutes work, distributed, as you see, over a period of $13\frac{1}{2}$ hours.

The next day the same carrier's time was from 5.45 a. m. to 7.13 p. m.; the next day from 5.45 to 7.10; the next day was a holiday; and again on Friday of that week his time was from 5.45 to 7.17, and he completed the week by working on Saturday from 5.45 until 7 o'clock, in each case with the midday swing of which I have spoken. In the same station, Robert C. Green, jr., on the same day (Feb. 24, 1912) worked from 5.45 a. m. to 7.15 p. m.; the following day the same hours; the following day from 5.45 to 7.10; the following day was a holiday; and then on the next day he worked from 5.45 to 7, and on Saturday from 5.45 to 7.15. Thus I might read the whole of the cards for that station which gives all the details. I will turn now to Station S in another portion of the city, and I find Thomas J. McManus working on the 24th of February from 5.30 in the morning until 6.25 in the evening, with a swing from 9.40 to 2.15. On Tuesday he worked from 5.50 to 6.20 in the evening; on Wednesday from 5.50 to 6.25; Thursday was a holiday; on Friday he worked from 5.50 to 6.35; and on Saturday from 5.50 to 6.20, all with a swing in the middle of the day. This statement may be said to be typical of that station also.

(Reports from other stations here given.)

I will not read more cards, because they will be made a part of the committee's report, and any Member can see them.

That long service lasts for a week, and the length of the "swing" between the early and the late tour depends on the time when the carrier gets back from his morning service.

Mr. COOPER. What was the earliest hour at which any of them went to work, as you remember?

Mr. REDFIELD. Five-thirty.

Mr. COOPER. And that is understood as meaning that a man has to get up about 4.30 in the morning and get his breakfast?

Mr. REDFIELD. I am glad the gentleman asked the question. I asked witnesses under oath as to how these men got their breakfast, and was told they could not, of course, disturb their wives and children. They got up themselves at from 4.30 to 4.45, prepared their own simple breakfast, and got away from the house at 5 o'clock.

Mr. COOPER. And then they get home at half past 8 or 9 o'clock at night?

Mr. REDFIELD. I do not desire in any way to mislead the House as to the fact that these men in a given day of 24 hours do no more than 8 hours' or within a few minutes of 8 hours' work. But each man during these broken days feels very keenly the consciousness that he has got to be back on his work, so to speak, and his mind must be upon it from 5 o'clock in the morning until 7 o'clock in the evening. And if there has been a heavy storm which has interrupted the traffic, I need not explain to this House the situation in which that man finds himself.

So much for what I may call the negative side of the case. The facts are admitted, because these cards were given me by authority of the post office. On the other hand, the question was asked, as a part of our committee investigation, how a change of hours would work? And I thought it was fair to have these facts under oath in order to pave the way somewhat for this discussion. The president of the local Letter Carriers' Association stated that it would be perfectly possible to arrange a schedule so that an 8-hour day

within 10 hours' continuous time could be laid out without serious additional expense to the Government and without interruption to the work. And in that connection he pointed out what every business man knows to be true, that a late evening delivery for a business house is rarely of any great value, for any delivery in a down-town business district after 5 o'clock is practically worthless for use that day.

He was asked this more closely—the president of the Letter Carriers' Association in the Brooklyn post office was asked—if he would cause to be prepared a schedule based upon the 8 hours in 10, and did so. I received it only a few days ago. It forms a portion of the subcommittee's report, and it is here now in my hand and is available for examination by any member of the Post Office Committee or anybody who desires to see it, and fully works out any kind of tour—two trips, three trips, four trips, five trips, and six-trip routes—all of them based upon continuous 8 hours' work, and all of them showing adjustment to the necessary convenience alike of the business and the residential districts of the city.

Now, as to the question of hours, it is my judgment, Mr. Chairman—after examining that post office for several days and making careful inquiry of the carriers in several of the stations—that the question of hours presented by this bill involves no more than an ordinary business adjustment, and would do justice to the men who are fairly, in all righteousness, entitled to it.

Now, I want to take up for a few moments another phase of this same subject. What do these men have to carry in the way of weights? We had before us, under examination, the superintendent of mails, who is in charge of the 1,100 and more carriers who operate in that post office. The committee requested each one of three stations and the general post office to prepare slips showing the largest weight taken out by any carrier during this investigation on certain days, which we fixed without the authorities knowing what they were to be in advance. These slips were to be signed by the carrier himself and by the superintendent of the station, so that there could be no question as to whether they told the truth or not.

I hold in my hand the slips representing the general post office and

Stations B, S, and W, on the 1st and 2d of March, and, referring to those, I will read very briefly certain questions addressed by me to the superintendent of mail delivery in Brooklyn and his answers. And in saying this I do it without any thought, expressed or in my mind, of criticism of the officers of the post office. That is not at all my purpose. I simply desire to make a public record of facts which relate to the bill now under discussion. I read:

Mr. REDFIELD. What do you consider the maximum amount of mail a carrier can handle on one delivery trip?

Mr. CARROUGHER. Why, on the three-trip route he should carry 40 pounds of mail.

Mr. REDFIELD. Do you know what the average load was that was taken out of the general post office in Brooklyn this morning?

Mr. CARROUGHER. I have an idea, but did not look at the figures, as I did not think you would want me to; but I have an idea that they would average about 60 pounds per man.

Mr. REDFIELD. Do the initialed tickets which have been handed by you to me, and which I show you, represent the loads taken out by the carriers this morning in the Brooklyn office.

Mr. CARROUGHER. Yes, sir.

Mr. REDFIELD. I call your attention to the fact that the tabulation made by Judge Towner from the slips shows the smallest load taken out this morning to be 52 pounds, and largest 81 pounds, or an average for 20 carriers of 65 pounds mail. To-day was not a day on which any of the large publications had to be delivered. What would you say was the heaviest load a carrier would be obliged to take out at one time?

Mr. CARROUGHER. That is a very problematical question. A week ago Tuesday I weighed the mail on route 12, of which you have the corresponding weight, and he took out 112 pounds.

Mr. REDFIELD. Would it be unusual for a carrier to take out as many as 40 copies of the Ladies' Home Journal or a publication of corresponding weight on one trip?

Mr. CARROUGHER. That would be possible on several routes; not more than 10 in the whole office.

Mr. REDFIELD. And on those 10 routes that would mean an added load of approximately 40 pounds, would it not?

Mr. CARROUGHER. About that.

Mr. REDFIELD. So that if that route happened to be the one upon which these tickets which you have furnished showed a weight of 52 pounds a day, that load might become 90 pounds?

Mr. CARROUGHER. Yes.

It is hardly necessary for me to go through these tickets in detail, because the substance of them has appeared in the extracts from the testimony which I have read to you; but I hope that it may be possible to incorporate in this legislation a provision that a letter carrier shall not be required to take out at any one time over 75 pounds of mail. I think if it be considered that he must go in the stress of weather, without regard to what the conditions are, and that he must go on schedule time both as to his start and as to his return, 75 pounds of mail is all that a man should be expected to carry under such circumstances.

Finally, this that I shall speak about is a matter of individual judgment. It must be taken as meaning no more than that. I have been accustomed all my life to shops in which men working in considerable numbers have been employed. One gets a certain habit of knowing whether the men are overexerting themselves or not. It was my judgment, from visiting two of these stations at a time when work was progressing most rapidly, one of them the general post office, that these men were under high tension. In examining not 1 nor 2 nor 10, but more, that impression became very real to me, and, upon inquiring of 3 of the carriers under oath as to that matter, they confirmed it, and their statements will appear in the record of the committee.

We have, then, a situation of this kind, that half the time in which those men are employed they are employed at hours which in their extremes may be said to be unusual and excessive. Then they are occasionally obliged—I do not say often—I do not know how often—to carry what seem to me to be excessive loads, and they are daily obliged to work under what seems to me to be high

tension. The nervous speed with which the work must be done is to my mind a very real factor in it. And this must be always borne in mind, that they are not merely like the man who has so much ordinary work to do, but this particular work must be done with a very high percentage of accuracy. Mistakes are not to any considerable extent allowable at all. So that there is here not merely a physical but a mental tension, the tension of a keen mind directed to very accurate work. Under these circumstances, which I have tried to describe as simply as I could and very briefly, I have felt, and feel now, that this legislation, which provides for these carriers working 8 hours in a continuous 10, is in the first place practical legislation, requiring no serious trouble, causing no injury to the service, and occasioning no special difficulty or excessive expense in its establishment and operation. In the next place I feel that it is wise. We have a force of men that is, I think, admirable. The gentleman whose testimony I have read spoke with great pride of his working force. I believe the force is now somewhat overstrained nervously. I believe it ought to be so adjusted in these details that we may feel that these men are working within and not beyond their powers.

From speech of CONGRESSMAN REDFIELD, on portion of Postal Appropriation Bill relating to hours of carriers. April 13, 1912. (Slight omissions made from report in "Congressional Record.")

Although many theories, both scientific and moral, have been proved true to the satisfaction of most people, there are new ones always arising which are doubted for a long time. Some will be accepted, others overthrown. In this age of individualism many people express theories contrary to tradition. These can be tested only by experience. All of us have occasion to set forth for others the proofs of a recent theory of physics, or of medicine, or of the rightness of certain lines of conduct. We should be able to do so with clearness and force.

Exercise XIV.

Formulate in a brief, and afterward develop in an argument before the class, one of the following:

1. Air is a mixture.
2. The law of multiple proportions is tenable.
3. The wave theory of light is tenable.
4. The kinetic theory of gases (or of matter) is tenable.
5. The theory of magnets is tenable.
6. All bodies fall at the same rate.
7. The electron theory is tenable.
8. The theory of natural selection is tenable.
9. The theory of biologic evolution is tenable.
10. Tuberculosis is infectious.
11. The nebular hypothesis is tenable.
12. New York State is a glaciated region.

Exercise XV.

Let two or six pupils debate as to the validity of one of the following:

1. Alcoholism is hereditary.
2. Cigarettes are harmful.
3. The vegetarian diet is better than the mixed diet.
4. Most failures in school are due to physical defects.
5. German (or French) has as great disciplinary value as has Latin.
6. A natural science has as great a disciplinary value as has Latin.
7. All men are created equal.
8. Woman suffrage would purify politics.
9. Homicide in self-defense is justifiable.
10. Capital punishment is right.
11. A man is justified in spending Sunday according to his personal beliefs.
12. A voter should place party loyalty above personal convictions.
13. A boy is justified in refusing to tell the name of a culprit (under certain conditions).

14. The rule of the sea, that women should be saved before men, is a right one.

15. The theory that ignorance of the law excuses none is justifiable.

Some questions which may be argued are a combination of belief and policy. Many of these affect our every-day conduct.

Exercise XVI.

Give concisely, in argumentative form, your reasons for the attitude you take on one of the following questions:

1. Is smuggling by tourists justifiable?
2. Should people give money to beggars?
3. Should stores be open evenings the three weeks preceding Christmas?
4. Should people celebrate Christmas by giving presents?
5. Is a detective justified in using a dictograph, or in concealing himself so as to overhear private conversations?
6. Should people patronize only those shops which sell no goods without a union label?
7. Are labor unions justified in demanding the "closed shop"?
8. Are labor unions justified in demanding reinstatement of employees discharged for what the employer deems just cause?
9. Should men be expected always to give up seats to women?
10. Should baseball games be allowed on Sunday?
11. Should museums and libraries be open on Sunday?
12. Should children be allowed to read the newspapers freely?
13. Should children be allowed the "funny pages" of the Sunday papers?
14. Should children be allowed to select their own books?
15. Should employers be forced to provide schooling for employees under sixteen?
16. Are pupils of the public schools justified in "going on strike" because they disapprove of some action of the Board of Education or faculty?

PROPERTY OF
DEPARTMENT OF DRAMATIC ART

PART III

TOPICS AND ILLUSTRATIVE MATERIAL

SUGGESTED OUTLINES FOR PRACTICE

Someone has given your school society a picture, or set of books, or statue. Write an outline for your speech of thanks.

Outline for welcome to the grand chapter of your fraternity.
See pages 356, 357, 361.

Announcement of prize, giving details and urging students to compete.

Introduction of outside speaker at a society meeting open to the school. *See pages 355, 356, 359.*

Talk giving necessary information, and urging school to join excursion to see a ball game, or to go on some expedition.

Talk on the new school paper, telling what it is, and urging support.

Talk to entering class, on some school organization.

Talk before athletic association or school, stating present situation of some team, needs, and reasons for supporting it, ending with appeal for money.

Talk before society to which you belong. As president, or chairman of some committee, state present situation, desire for change, and proposed plan.

Talk as chairman of meeting called to form a new organization.

Speech before school or class meeting or some society, in regard to a common grievance.

Appeal to the Faculty for a special holiday, or for some privilege.

Speech, by president of senior class, on proposed plan for school government.

Talk by any class officer on plans for Senior Week.

Talk before your school or society on the part the members might take in a new movement in your town for clean streets, or abolition of unnecessary noise, care of parks, etc.

Opening talk by chairman of meeting called to consider invitation to school or class to take part in celebration.

Talk before class, school, or society about coming fair, or other entertainment, for library, ball team, etc., with a view to explaining, arousing interest, and obtaining help.

GENERAL TOPICS

FOR SCHOOL ASSEMBLIES OR CLASSES

Account of a game of ball played by the school team in another town.

Let one explain situation of grounds, and describe scene before game.

Let another give account of game.

Let another describe scene afterward, and tell of any incidents at that time.

Possibly a fourth may tell about the trip home and the celebration of the team.

Your school. A talk including description, exposition, argument.

A western ranch.

A great factory.

Some "plant" in your town.

A department store.

A summer hotel.

A certain summer resort.

A college settlement in some city.

A recent railway accident.

The present, or recent, war in ——— (several persons taking different phases).

Discussion of some diplomatic situation of the present.

An amusement resort in your town.

A visit to a coal mine, or factory, or newspaper office, or ship, etc.

The review of the fleet in New York.

The recent national or state political convention of the ——— party.

Account of some notable convention or other gathering, held in or near your town.

Some holiday trips around your city.

How to see New York, or Washington, or some other city.

Why New York, or some other city, is worth seeing.

Report of fraternity convention or of interscholastic contest.

SUBJECTS FOR SENIOR ORATIONS

(To be Limited as Advisable)

- The balance of power in Europe.
- United States control of South America through diplomacy.
- The power of the United States in Europe.
- The "white man's burden."
- England in South Africa.
- Present-day application of arbitration.
- The work of our nation for world peace.
- The present tendency of industrial reform.
- The present status of the Labor Union.
- The ideal labor organization.
- The ideal factory.
- The awakening of the employer.
- The industrial position of women at present.
- The place of the corporation in modern business.
- Business morality.
- Carnegie's work for humanity.
- Rockefeller's gifts to the people.
- Organized charity.
- Should people give money to beggars?
- Settlement work in a great city.
- The club idea among the lowly.
- The awakening of civic responsibility.
- The new politics.
- The history of parties in the United States.
- How a new party is formed.
- Are parties beneficial to a nation?
- Should political victors have the spoils?
- Has woman suffrage proved a benefit in Colorado? (or some other state).
- Should the suffrage be restricted?

The struggle for suffrage in England.
Parties in England (or some other country).
New problems of the cities.
The broadening of municipal activities.
How a city charter is made.
City housekeeping.
Should city officials be appointed for long terms?
Should the city pension its employees?
A 20th century city compared with an 18th century city.
What "the woman's movement" is.
The suffrage movement in America.
Some leaders among women.
Women in the various occupations.
Some women's rights gained in the last century.
The feminine invasion of the schools.
The fictional heroine of various periods.
The part wheat played in the development of the West.
The part gold has had in the development of the United States.
What iron means to our industrial world.
The part electricity plays in our life.
Irrigation in the West.
What the Panama Canal means to the West.
What the Erie Canal meant to the West.
The rural mail delivery as a factor in country life.
The life of the farmer now compared with that fifty years ago.
A century in transportation.
A century in invention.
The traffic of the Great Lakes.
The gifts of California to the East.
Opening up the far North.
New York the market of the world.
The income of Nova Scotia.
The income of Bermuda.
The development of the summer resort.
The Mecca of American sightseers.
New England as the Mecca of literary pilgrims.

Harvard or Yale or any other college as the Mother of authors or of statesmen.

The abolition movement as a school of oratory.

The lecture platform in America.

Congress as compared with Parliament for oratory.

Is the political orator of any value as a vote getter?

The English feudal system under the Normans.

The French feudal system before the Revolution.

The feudal system in America. (Patroons.)

A typical English manor of the 15th century.

A typical English estate to-day.

The modern revival of great estates in America.

The modern newspaper compared with that of the 18th century.

The power of the modern American newspaper.

Newspaper morality.

Should an editor support a certain political party because the owner of the paper wishes it?

Should children be allowed to read newspapers?

Should the Sunday paper be patronized?

Should the freedom of the press be absolute?

The development of periodical literature in America.

The place of the periodical in modern life.

Should the periodical censor advertisements?

Should the newspapers print full accounts of crimes, scandals, etc.?

The Indian as the ward of the government.

How the government is making Americans of the Filipinos.

How the schools in New York make little Americans.

A city of nations.

The ideal man of different periods of civilization.

The growth of religious toleration.

Luxuries of the present compared with luxuries a hundred years ago.

The immigrant of 1850 compared with the immigrant of to-day.

The famous sieges of history.

Aviation in the year 2000

How we are making history to-day.
The passing of the little red schoolhouse.
The schoolmaster in literature.
Some famous literary friendships.
The children of Dickens.
The growth of the temperance movement.
The Jew in America.
Some modern forms of slavery.
Child labor in our own country (or state).
Public philanthropy in our state (or city).
What Uncle Sam does for the farmer.
What the government does for health.
Uncle Sam as an employer.
Our government as a protector of its sons in other lands.
How a territory becomes a state.
How our country adopts citizens.

TOPICS FOR ORAL REPORTS

BASED ON THE UNIFORM ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS

Note.—Nearly all recitations on some of these books can be conducted by the topical method, each pupil talking on one of several topics which have been assigned, and planned by all. Any teacher will prefer to suggest, herself, such topics as the working out of the plot, the character studies, the use of suspense, etc. Those suggested here are intended for individual assignments to be worked up by pupils to help the class as a whole in the understanding of the book, or, in argumentative subjects, to be taken formally or informally by several interested in that question. Many similar ones will occur to teacher and pupils. Few specific references have been given, since the number of available books varies so much in different libraries. Pupils should learn how to look for material themselves.

ADDISON

The DeCoverley Papers

Narrative of Addison's travels. (In connection with *Spectator's* account of himself.) (Macaulay: *Life of Addison*.)

Connected story of Sir Roger's love affair.

Let the butler give an account of the incident on which the painting of Sir Roger and the servant were based.

Let the chaplain tell the story of some case that arose in the parish, such as that of Moll White.

Let Will Wimble tell how he caught the fish.

Let Tom Touchy tell the story of one of his lawsuits.

The story of the play, *The Distrest Mother*, by Ambrose Phillips.

Story of the friendship of Addison and Steele.

Steele's romance.

Story of one of Steele's plays

The story of *Rosamond*.

Describe Sir Roger as a sheriff.

Describe Sir Roger as he was speaking at the Assizes.

Describe the scene when Sir Roger is calling on the widow.

Describe a country church of the time, taking the church at Stoke Pogis, possibly, as a model.

Describe a typical scene at Vauxhall. (See Besant: *London in the Eighteenth Century*. Gardiner: *Students' Hist. of Eng.*, v. III.)

Scene in a London Street. (Ashton: *Social Life in Reign of Queen Anne*. Besant: *London in the Eighteenth Century*.)

Give a scientific description of Westminster Abbey, drawing plans on the blackboard.

Describe the exterior of Westminster Abbey.

The reign of Queen Anne. (Any English history.)

The Queen Anne period in literature. Five minute talk. (English Literature.)

Some contemporaries of Addison and Steele. (English Literature.)

Some earlier essayists. (English Literature.)

Fiction in the time of Addison. (English Literature.)

Newspapers of the seventeenth century. (Williams, J. B.: *History of English Journalism*.)

Defoe's journalism.

The Tatler.

Coffee-houses in Addison's time. (Shelley, H. C.: *Inns and Taverns of Old London*.)

The country squire. (Ditchfield, P. H.: *The Old English Country Squire*.)

Hunting customs. (Ashton: *Social Life in the Reign of Queen Anne*.)

Traveling in the Queen Anne period. (Ashton: *Social Life in the Reign of Queen Anne*. Besant: *London in the Eighteenth Century*.)

The Theatre in the time of the Spectator. (Ashton: *Social Life in the Reign of Queen Anne*. Besant: *London in the Eighteenth Century*.)

The Whigs. (English histories.)

The Tories. (English histories.)

Addison as a statesman. (Any life of Addison.)

Steele's part in politics.

Westminster Abbey: history, use, etc.

Amusements of the Spectator's time. (Ashton: *Social Life in the Reign of Queen Anne*. Besant: *London in the Eighteenth Century*. Shelley, H. C.: *Inns and Taverns of Old London*.)

How the beau spent his time. (Spectator Papers, *Diary of a Citizen*.)

Witchcraft in England. (Besant: *London in the Eighteenth Century*. Traill: *Social England*.)

Superstitions of the time. (Spectator paper on Superstition.)

Gipsies in England. (Ashton: *Social Life in the Reign of Queen Anne*.)

The Mohocks. (Ashton: *Social Life in the Reign of Queen Anne*.)

Dress in the Spectator's time. (Spectator Papers and books on costume.)

The army in the Spectator's time.

Prince Eugene.

The Spectator as a critic. (Papers on *Paradise Lost*, *The Art of Criticism*, and on various plays.)

The value of parties.

Present evils of party spirit.

Sir Roger compared to Squire Bracebridge.

Life of a country gentleman. Five minute talk. (Macaulay: *History of England*, ch. III. Ditchfield, P. H.: *Old English Country Squire*.)

The Charterhouse school. (Taylor, W. F.: *The Charterhouse of London*.)

Magdalen college. (Various books on Oxford.)

The Rambler.

The Idler.

Political papers of the time. (Williams, J. B.: *History of English Journalism*.)

Should only men of fine parts be hanged?

Was Sir Roger really patriotic in insisting on employing old soldiers?

Should old clothes be given to servants?

Is advancement retarded by honesty and integrity?

Should political parties exist?

Is the reading of famous sermons better than original discourses?

Was the widow justified in her treatment of Sir Roger?

The modern editorial compared with "The Spectator."

The open letter compared with "The Spectator."

Some magazine essayists of the latter half of the 19th century.

Account of some work by a present-day humorist. (Butler, Dunne, Ade, etc.)

Comparison of some present-day humorist with the Spectator.

The work of some 19th century essayist. (Lamb, Hazlitt, De Quincey, Leigh Hunt, Macaulay, Lockhart, Curtis, Warner, Whipple, Stevenson, Pater, Lowell, Holmes.)

The work of some 20th century essayist. (Van Dyke, Mabie, Reppier, Benson, Howells, Burroughs, Chesterton, Crothers.)

The method of "Master Humphrey's Clock" (Dickens), compared with "The Spectator."

The Spectator of the "Outlook."

Modern subjects for Spectator essays.

The clergy in the eighteenth century. (Macaulay: *History of England*, ch. III. Ditchfield, P. H.: *The Parson*.)

The game laws.

BURKE

Speech on Conciliation with America

Feeling between England and the colonies, 1763-1772.

The Navigation Acts.

The part of the colonies in the French and Indian wars.

The occasion for taxation of the colonies.

The Parliamentary view of representation of the colonies.

The English system of representation. (History of changes.)

The Stamp Act.

The Townshend Acts.

Colonial activity.

The Boston Riot.

The story of the Boston Tea Party.

The Intolerable, or Coercive Acts.

An account of some colonial organization.

The Continental Congresses.

Account of battles of Concord and Lexington.

Constitution of the British Parliament.

Method of Parliamentary government, compared with American system.

How laws are made in England.

The power of the King.

Recent changes in powers of House of Lords.

Some recent act of Parliament.

Some question recently of interest in English government or policy.

The membership of Parliament now as compared to that of Burke's time.

Burke's position in England.

Movements in which Burke was prominent.

History of the Home Rule movement for Ireland.

Some Irish statesmen.

English government in Canada; in India; in South Africa.

The part of English citizens in the causes of the Boer War.

Burke's failure to reach the highest positions.

Some other literary statesmen in England. (Several may talk of individuals.)

Burke's record as an orator.

Burke's characteristics as an orator.

Burke's friends.

Lord Rockingham: personality—position—policies.

Lord North.

Lord Grenville.

Earl of Chatham.

Charles James Fox.

Political parties of Burke's time.

Political parties of the present.

George III: character—policies—part he took in the government.

George V compared with George III.

England had or had not a right to tax the colonies.

England was or was not morally justified in passing the Stamp Act.

England was or was not justified in quartering soldiers among colonists.

The Bostonians were or were not justified in the "Tea-Party."

The colonies had or had not the right to secede.

The colonies were or were not justified in a declaration of independence in 1776.

Burke was or was not, as an Englishman, justified in supporting the colonies.

The Revolution was or was not carried on by "the rabble."

Burke was or was not inconsistent in his views at different periods.

Burke's plan was or was not, in the light of following events, a wise one.

(References: McMaster: *Student's History of the United States*. Other American histories. Green: *Brief History of the English*

People. Other English histories. Morley: *Life of Burke*. Bagehot: *The English Constitution*.)

CARLYLE

Carlyle's fitness for the task of writing a life of Burns.
 Carlyle as a typical Scot. (Any Life of Carlyle.)
 Carlyle's personality. (" " " ")
 Carlyle as a student. (" " " ")
 Carlyle as a teacher. (" " " ")
 Carlyle as a writer. (" " " ")
 Carlyle's father. (Life of Carlyle, Carlyle's *Reminiscences*.)
 Carlyle's mother. (Any Life of Carlyle, Letters.)
 Carlyle and his sister. (*Letters to his youngest Sister*. C. T. Copeland, ed.)
 Jane Welsh Carlyle. (Letters of Mrs. Carlyle, Carlyle's *Reminiscences*, Life of Carlyle.)
 Carlyle as a world-teacher.
 Friendship of Carlyle and Emerson. (*Letters of Carlyle and Emerson*.)
 The Carlyle country. Homes of Carlyle, etc. (Sloan, J. M.: *The Carlyle Country*.)
 The period in which Carlyle wrote.

Essay on Burns

The Edinburgh Review.
 Other Reviews of the period. (Saintsbury: *History of 19th Century Literature*.)
 The book-review of the early 19th century compared with that of the present.
 Byron as a poet (Long's or any other English Literature).
 Brief sketch of Byron's life, in comparison with Burns's.
 Lockhart as a writer.
 The present popularity of Burns.

Mrs. Dunlap and Burns. (*Letters of Burns to Mrs. Dunlap*, ed. by Wallace.)

Early Scottish poetry. (Chambers' *Cyclopedia of English Literature*.)

Fergusson. (Ward: *English Poets*, v. III.)

Ramsay. (Ward: *English Poets*, v. III.)

Wallace.

Bruce.

Burns as a patriot.

Burns as a nature poet.

Burns as a romanticist. (Phelps, W. L.: *English Romantic Movement*.)

Burns as a satirist.

The lessons of Burns's life.

Carlyle's attitude toward "Burns the Man."

Carlyle as a biographer (as fulfilling the requirements he expresses.)

Should this essay be included in the English course?

Carlyle's style.

A review of this essay, for someone who wants to know about it.

Brief reports may be made on persons mentioned in the essay, as Keats, Homer, Borgia, Luther, Defoe, Richardson, Dante.

Give an account, such as to give an idea of the book, and to arouse interest in it, and express your own opinion of one of the following, or some other biography you have read.

Macaulay: *Life of Addison*, *Life of Johnson*, *Essay on Milton*.

Lockhart: *Life of Scott*, *Life of Burns*.

Southey: *Life of Nelson*.

Trevelyan, G. O.: *Life and Letters of Macaulay*.

Gaskell, Mrs.: *Life of Charlotte Brontë*.

Lang, Andrew: *Life of Scott*.

Cheney, Edna: *Life and Letters of Louisa M. Alcott*.

Irving: *Life of Goldsmith*.

Blackie, J. S.: *Burns*.

Garnett, Richard: *Life of Milton*.

Pickard, S. T.: *Life and Letters of Whittier*.

Froude, J. A.: *Cæsar*.

Roosevelt, Theodore: *Oliver Cromwell*.

If preferred, autobiographies or essays such as those by Repplier, Warner, Curtis, Stevenson, Van Dyke, Mabie, Lowell, De Quincey, may be taken as subjects for talks.

DICKENS

The childhood of Dickens. (Langton, Robert: *Childhood and Youth of Dickens*.)

Dickens' home life. (Dickens, Mamie: *My Father as I Recall Him*.)

Gadshill.

An illustrator of Dickens.

Dickens in America.

Dickens as a lecturer.

Dickens as a letter-writer.

Dickens as a humanitarian.

The children portrayed by Dickens.

Some character-types of Dickens.

The kind of life Dickens liked to portray.

Dickens' model woman.

Dickens' fondness for dress.

A Child's Ride with Dickens. (Kate Douglas Wiggin.)

What Dickens did for Childhood. ("Century," Feb., 1899.)

The London of Dickens. (Miltoun: *Dickens' London*.)

A school portrayed by Dickens. (*Dombey and Son*, *Nicholas Nickleby*.)

The schoolmaster of Dickens' novels.

The centenary of Dickens.

The fund for Dickens' descendants.

Dickens' place in literature.

Why I read Dickens.

My favorite character from Dickens.

Story of some one of the shorter novels.

A Tale of Two Cities

The Bank of England.

Relation of guardian and ward in England in the 18th century.

The punishment of crime in England in the 18th century.

Highway robbery in England in the 18th century. (Sydney, W. C.: *England in 18th Century*.)

Method of procedure in trials for treason. (Traill: *Social England*.)

The rights of the French Manor Lord. (Mallet: *French Revolution*, Ch. I.)

The Feudal system in France. (Mallet: *French Revolution*, Ch. I.)

The taxes. (Mallet: *French Revolution*, Ch. I.)

The Bastille. (Bingham, D.: *The Bastille*.)

The destruction of the Bastille. (Carlyle: *French Revolution*, Bk. V, Ch. VI.)

Experience of some prisoner in the Bastille.

The States General. (Carlyle, Mallet.)

Character sketches of Louis XIV, Louis XV, Louis XVI, Marie Antoinette.

The typical French peasant of 1789.

The Jacobins. (Mallet, Carlyle.)

The Girondists. (Mallet, Carlyle.)

The Reign of Terror. (Carlyle, Part III, Bk. IV. Mallet, Ch. VII-XII. Elliot, G. D.: *In the Shadow of the Guillotine*.)

Charlotte Corday.

Some noted men of the time.

A typical trial. (Le Notre: *The Tribunal of the Terror*.)

A royal flight: (Carlyle: *French Revolution*, Pt. II, Bk. IV, Ch. III.)

The custom of accusation by letter as practiced in Florence.

The imprisonment of Lafayette. (Any life of Lafayette.)

Some recent finds as to the number killed in the Revolution.

The Guillotine: invention—description—explanation of use.

GEORGE ELIOT

Silas Marner

Describe the scene of the trial of Silas by lot.

Describe the scene in the inn just after Silas appears.

Describe Molly as she approaches the Red House.

Describe Mr. Macey as he sits before the door.

Describe Nancy as she sits in her parlor on the eventful Sunday afternoon.

Describe the scene at the stone pits just after the discovery of Dunstan's body.

Describe the scene in Silas's cottage at the time of the Sunday meal.

Describe the scene in Silas's cottage at the time Godfrey reveals his relationship to Eppie.

Let the farrier tell a member of his family about the events of the evening.

Let Silas tell Dolly the story of Lantern Yard, as she questions.

Let someone in Lantern Yard tell the story of how Silas, the hitherto irreproachable young man, was shown guilty of theft.

Let Silas tell Eppie the story of the night when he found her.

Let Godfrey, after the refusal of Eppie to acknowledge him, tell to Nancy some night the full story.

Let Nancy tell Priscilla the story of how the effort was made to claim Eppie.

Conversation between Dunstan and Godfrey, when Godfrey gives up money.

Conversation between Molly and Godfrey, when Molly threatens.

Conversation among the villagers (three or four) after Silas's loss.

Conversation between Dolly and Ben about Silas's adoption of Eppie.

Conversation between Nancy and Priscilla after the ball.

Conversation between the Misses Gunn after the ball.

Was Nancy right, considering her ideas, in refusing to adopt the child?

Would Silas have taken Eppie, had she come before he lost his gold?

Would Nancy now be thought to have the essential traits of a lady?
Were Nancy and Godfrey right in asking Silas to give up Eppie?
Was Eppie fitted to take her place in the Red House as Godfrey's daughter?

Was Eppie right in refusing to acknowledge Godfrey's claim?

Was Godfrey's retribution a just, sufficient one?

The use of Dolly Winthrop (or some other minor character) in the story.

Methods of revealing character in this novel.

The development of character in this novel

The interrelation of characters.

Preparation for events in this novel.

Comparison of *Silas Marner* to *Ivanhoe*, or *Tale of Two Cities*, as to interest, or as to character development.

Trial by ordeal and lot. (Cheney: *English History*.)

Silas's religion at Lantern Yard. ("The Dissenters." English histories.)

The Church of England service.

Transportation in the early 19th century.

Superstitions of a hundred years ago, and now.

Education in the early 19th century. (Traill: *Social England*, vol. VI.)

The coming of the factory. (Traill: *Social England*, vol. VI.)

Weavers in England. (Traill: *Social England*. Industrial histories.)

Tell the story of the retribution that came to Tito. (*Romola*.)

Compare Godfrey and Tito.

Trace the development of Gwendolen Harleth's character. (*Daniel Deronda*.)

Story of the plot of some other novel by George Eliot.

Criticism (in form of book review) of some other novel of George Eliot.

Application of George Eliot's idea of immortality to her own work. (Eliot: *O, may I join the Choir Invisible*.)

George Eliot as a poet.

Silas Marner as a novel of manners; as an ethical novel.

HOMER

The Odyssey.

The judgment of Paris.
The story of the Trojan War.
The wooden horse. (*The Aeneid, The Iliad.*)
Anecdote of how Ulysses was induced to enter the war.
The part of Ulysses in the Trojan War.
The wrath of Achilles.
The goddess Athene.
The attributes of Neptune.
Some story of Zeus.
Polyphemus and Galatea.
The encounter of Aeneas and Polyphemus. (*The Aeneid.*)
The journey of Aeneas. (*The Aeneid.*)
The part the gods played in the Trojan War. (*The Iliad.*)
Mount Olympus.
The Greek idea of Hades.
The house of the period. (Seymour: *Greek Life.*)
The Homeric conception of a hero.
The modern conception of a hero.
Penelope as a womanly type.
Nausicäa as a womanly type.
Other descents into Hades. (*The Aeneid, Dante's Divine Comedy.*)
Craft and wile in the story.
Stories of Circe.
Some other great story of a hero; Beowulf, Siegfried, Aeneas, etc.
What is meant by heroic poetry?
Was "Homer" Homer?
The justice of the suitors' punishment.
Was Penelope responsible for their acts?
(Mythological references: Gayley: *Classic Myths in Eng. Lit.*;
Guerber: *Myths of Greece and Rome*; Bulfinch: *Age of Fable.*)

IRVING

The Sketch Book

Brief sketch of Irving's life.

Description of a scene at the departure of some ship.

Description of the scene at the arrival of some ship.

Brief account of the life of Roscoe.

One minute talk on the work of Roscoe.

How Hendrick Hudson went up the great river.

Description of the Half-Moon.

Brief account of a trip up the Hudson.

Description of Rip's house as it probably looked when he returned.

Description of typical scene at the village inn.

Description of some scene in the Catskills.

Joseph Jefferson's portrayal of Rip van Winkle.

Relations between England and America in Irving's time.

Relations between England and America now.

Abstract of some book on America by a European, or statement of his attitude.

Growth of landscape gardening in America.

Some great American parks.

Description of scene in some American park.

Description of Windsor Castle.

Story of Chaucer's *Knight's Tale*.

James I as an author.

The scene outside some country church with which you are familiar.

The English Sunday compared with the American Sunday, in cities.

Character sketch of Falstaff.

Description of typical scene in the Boar's Head Tavern in Shakespeare's time. (*King Henry IV*, Part I, Act II, scene iv.)

Some famous Southwark inns. (Shelley, H. C.: *Inns and Taverns of Old London*.)

Anecdotes of Westminster school. (Markham, F.: *Recollections of a Town-boy at Westminster*.)

The Doomsday Book.

Why Spenser is remembered.

The reason why the books from the press of Wynkyn de Worde are sought.

Sir Philip Sidney's *Arcadia*. (What the book is about, what made it popular.)

What Llyl stands for in English Literature. (Any English Literature.)

What Chaucer stands for in English Literature. (Any English Literature.)

Some books of a generation ago that are now forgotten.

Some old English funeral customs.

History of Westminster Abbey. (Brooks-Hunt, Violet: *Westminster Abbey*. Bradley, E. T.: *Annals of Westminster Abbey*.)

Plan of the Abbey (illustrated by drawing at board).

Description of some tomb in the Abbey. (See references above.)

America's Hall of Fame.

When the celebration of Christmas was stopped.

The German Christmas.

Why we have Christmas trees. (*The Book of Christmas*.)

Revival of the use of holly.

Comparison of old English customs and American customs at Christmas.

Evil of our methods of celebration.

An ideal Christmas.

The spirit of Christmas.

The American stagecoach.

The British public school. (*Tom Brown at Rugby*.)

The position of the English squire in the eighteenth century. (Macaulay: *History of England*, v. I, ch. III. Ditchfield, P. H.: *The Old English Country Squire*.)

An old English manor. (Walker: *Essentials of English History*, p. 104.)

A country estate in America.

Description of scene in the church on Christmas day

Some American literary shrines (Wilson, R. R.: *New England in Letters*):

Sunnyside; Longfellow's home, Cambridge; Whittier's home, East Haverhill; Concord, Mass.; Salem, Mass.

Penn's treaty with the Indians.

Some instance of injustice to the Indian. (Jackson, H. H.: *A Century of Dishonor*.)

The Indian on the Reservation.

The Indian at school.

As an Indian sees an Indian. (Eastman, Charles: *The Soul of the Indian*.)

Cooper's attitude toward the Indian.

Character sketch of Chingachgook. (Cooper: *Last of the Mohicans*.)

Story of the Seminole War, or the Black Hawk War.

John Bull compared to Uncle Sam, or some other national figure.

The charm of *The Compleat Angler*.

A modern angler's joys. (Van Dyke, Henry: *Fisherman's Luck*.)

Account of an angling expedition.

Description of scene in some country schoolhouse.

Sleepy Hollow as it is to-day.

Story of one of the *Tales of a Traveller*.

Anecdote from *Knickerbocker's History*.

Anecdote of Irving.

Description of Sunnyside.

Irving as a patriotic writer.

Irving as a humorist.

Irving as a writer of travel sketches.

Irving as a biographer.

Irving as a short-story writer.

Irving as a diplomat.

LINCOLN

Description of Lincoln's birthplace.

Lincoln's father.

His stepmother.

Lincoln and his little sister.

The boy as a speechmaker.
Lincoln as a rail-splitter.
Life in a country store.
Life on the river.
The Black Hawk War.
How Lincoln studied.
Lincoln as a lawyer.
Lincoln as a politician.
Lincoln's early attitude toward slavery.
The Lincoln-Douglas debates.
Career of Douglas.
The Dred Scott Decision.
The Missouri Compromise.
The "underground railway."
The beginning of slavery in America.
The early status of slavery in the North.
The adaptability of slavery to North and South.
Rise of the Abolition movement in the North.
The great Abolition leaders.
The story of *Uncle Tom's Cabin*.
Influence of *Uncle Tom's Cabin*.
The story of *Dred*.
The convention which nominated Lincoln.
The circumstances of the Cooper Union speech.
Description of Lincoln as he appeared to a New York audience.
Lincoln as a campaigner.
The issues of the campaign of 1860.
The rise of the Republican party.
Lincoln's journey to Washington.
The Washington of 1861.
Lincoln's cabinet.
Lincoln as a story teller.
One of Lincoln's stories.
Lincoln's tender heart.
Tell the story of *The Perfect Tribute*. (Andrews.)
Reasons for the Emancipation Proclamation.

Reception of the Emancipation Proclamation.
The close of the war.
The assassination of Lincoln.
Account of the Continental Congress held in Independence Hall.
Description of Independence Hall.
The Signing of the Declaration of Independence.
Account of the Battle of Gettysburg.
Significance of the battle.
Description of the battlefield. (If any student has visited it.)
Character sketch of Lee.
Lee's part in the Civil War.
Account of some other important battle in the Civil War.
How Lincoln wrote the Gettysburg speech.
Brief summary of Edward Everett's speech.
Celebration of fiftieth anniversary of the Battle of Gettysburg, 1913.
Brief sketch of Greeley's life.
Character sketch of Greeley.
Greeley's public career.
Greeley as an editor.
The "Tribune" in Greeley's time.
Some editor contemporary with Greeley.
Some anecdote of Greeley.
The presidential campaign of 1864.
Lincoln's opponent, McClellan.
The opponents of Lincoln's policy, in the North.
The religion of Lincoln.
The personality of Grant.
Grant as a soldier.
The siege of Vicksburg.
Was slavery the real cause of the Civil War?
Was slavery beneficial to the South?
Was Lincoln justified in freeing the slaves when he did?
Should the owners have been paid for their slaves?
Were the people of the North justified in aiding the escape of slaves?

Was Greeley justified in becoming a candidate for the presidency on a third ticket in 1872?

Was McClellan justified in becoming a candidate against Lincoln in 1864?

Were the terms of surrender of Lee's army in 1865 just?

Was Lincoln fitted to bring about reconstruction?

Should soldiers of the Civil War be granted a dollar a day pension?

Should all soldiers have burial in national cemeteries?

Should a distinguished military career (such as Grant's) be a reason for nominating him for the presidency?

(References: Tarbell, Ida M.: *Early Life of Lincoln*. Nicolay and Hay: *Life of Lincoln*. Singmaster, Elsie: *Gettysburg*. Linn: *Horace Greeley*. American histories.)

MACAULAY

Essays on Clive and Hastings

What is meant by "India"?

The East India company: beginnings, progress, accomplishments, dissolution.

How India became part of the British Empire.

The present government of India. Various phases: viceroy, governors, councils, police system, etc.

The Sepoy rebellion.

The siege of Lucknow.

The Black Hole of Calcutta.

Description of an Indian temple. (Stoddard's *Lectures*.)

Description of the Taj Mahal. (Stoddard's *Lectures*.)

The Grand Mogul.

The religions current in India. (Encyclopedias.)

The position of women in India a hundred years ago.

European education for India.

The state of some native prince.

Was Clive justified in taking money from Meer Jaffier?

Was Clive justified in the measures he used against Dupleix?

Should Clive have been ejected from Parliament?
 Was Clive justified in his deceptions in dealing with Omichund?
 Was Clive wise in going back to India in 1765?
 Was Hastings justified in obtaining, by whatever means, the revenue demanded by the company?
 Should the English army have been lent to the Nabob Vizier?
 Was Francis the author of the Junius letters?
 Was Hastings justified in his treatment of Cheyte Sing?
 Has English rule benefited India?
 Is India capable of Home Rule?
 Burke's part in the Hastings affair.
 The story of Colonel Newcome, from *The Newcomes*.
 Macaulay's service in India.
 Macaulay as a letter-writer. (Trevelyan, G. O.: *Life and Letters of Lord Macaulay*.)
 Macaulay as a reader.
 Macaulay as a speaker.
 Macaulay as an essayist.
 King George's visit to India.
 The Durbar of 1912.
 The "white man's burden."
 Review of *Kim*, by Rudyard Kipling.
 Story of one of the *Plain Tales from the Hills*.
Soldiers Three.

MILTON

Minor Poems

Description of Windsor Castle, seen among trees. (From pictures.)
 Story of tournament. (From *Ivanhoe*.)
 Jonson as the learned playwright.
 Story of Orpheus and Eurydice. (Gayley: *Classic Myths*.
 Guerber: *Myths of Greece and Rome*. Bulfinch: *Age of Fable*.)
 Story of Saturn's reign.
 The Muses.

Residence of the gods on Olympus.

Story of Philomel.

History of the curfew.

Story of Troy.

Squier's tale. (Chaucer.)

Description of King's College chapel. (From pictures, in books on Cambridge.)

Description of some "storied window."

Story of Circe. (*Odyssey*, or any mythology.)

Experience of Ulysses, or of Æneas, with the Sirens, Scylla, and Charybdis. (*Odyssey*, *Iliad*.)

Story of Pan.

Myth of the Golden Apples.

Story of Cupid and Psyche.

How Perseus slew the Gorgon. (Hawthorne's *Wonder Book*.)

Story of Thetis.

Cambridge University. (Johnson, R. B.: *Cambridge Colleges*.)

Clark, J. W.: *Cambridge*.)

Cambridge as a nurse of poets.

Edward King.

Milton's education. (Any biography of Milton. Jenks, Tudor: *In the Days of Milton*.)

"The lady of Christ's."

Milton's training as it influenced his poetry.

Life at Horton. (Mead, Lucia: *Milton's England*.)

Influence of life at Horton on work.

Milton's love for music.

Milton in Italy.

Friendship for Diodati.

Cyriac Skinner.

Henry Lawes.

Inigo Jones.

Circumstances under which *Comus* was presented. (Minor Poems, ed. by A. P. Walker, D. C. Heath & Co., p. 89.)

The Puritan attitude toward plays.

Amusements of the Cavaliers.

Home life of Puritans and Cavaliers. (Godfrey: *Domestic Life in England*. Jenks, Tudor: *In the Days of Milton*.)

Dress of Puritans and Cavaliers. (*Heritage of Dress*, or any complete history of costume.)

Political ideas of Puritans and Cavaliers. (English histories. Macaulay: *Essay on Milton*.)

Religious ideas of Puritans and Cavaliers. (Macaulay: *History of England*. Long: *English Literature*.)

Charles I—Conflict with Parliament. (Macaulay: *History of England*.)

Prose writers of the period. (English Literature.)

Poets of the Cavaliers. (English Literature.)

Work of John Bunyan.

Milton's public work. (Macaulay: *Essay on Milton*.)

Milton as a controversialist.

Milton as a religious writer.

Milton as a combination of Renaissance and Puritan types.

History of the masque in English literature. (Evans, H. A.: *English Masques*.)

Account of some other masque. (Evans, H. A.: *English Masques*.)

Account of each of the following: *Paradise Lost*, *Paradise Regained*, *Samson Agonistes*, *Education*, *Areopagitica*.

Is the term "Minor Poems" justified?

Was Milton (considering the *Areopagitica*) justified in acting as censor?

Was Milton justified in defending the execution of Charles?

Was Milton justified in the abusiveness of his controversial pamphlets?

Was Milton right in sacrificing his sight in the cause of defending the acts of Parliament?

Did Milton's poetical work suffer because of his service to the State?

Was the Puritan attitude toward plays justifiable?

Was the typical Puritan a better neighbor (or household companion) than the Cavalier?

Was Milton to blame for his unhappy life with his daughters?
Do *L'Allegro* and *Il Penseroso* represent the same man, in different moods?

PALGRAVE

The Golden Treasury

Why such a collection is valuable.
An account of some anthology, or of the *Oxford Book of Verse*, as compared with *The Golden Treasury*.
Should such a book be used for study in the high school English course?

Forms of poetry: Epic, Lyric, Dramatic, Didactic.
The nineteenth century types of poetry. (Any English Literature.)
The sonnet form.
Wyatt, the introducer of the sonnet.
The sonnet in the Elizabethan age.
The sonnet in the Romantic period.
Wordsworth as a nature poet.
Wordsworth's idea of poetic diction. (Preface to *Lyrical Ballads*.)
Wordsworth in France.
Story of *Peter Bell* or some other poem.
Wordsworth's friendships. (Rannie: *Wordsworth and His Circle*.)
The interest of the Lake Country for students of English literature. (Rawnsley: *Literary Associations of the English Lakes*.)
What the Lake Country is like. (Johnson, C.: *Among English Hedgerows*. Bradley, A. G.: *Highways and Byways in the Lake District*. Lang, A.: *Poets' Country*. Palmer, W. T.: *The English Lakes*.)
The beginnings of the Romantic Movement. (Phelps, W. L.: *English Romantic Movement*.)
What the Romantic Movement means in English Literature.
Biographical sketch of Keats.
Story of some longer poem of Keats.
Biographic sketch of Shelley.
Shelley in Italy. (McMahon, A. B.: *With Shelley in Italy*.)

Comparison of the ideas of liberty, of Shelley, Keats, and Byron.
 Nature in the Romantic poetry.
 Nature in the poetry of the 18th century.
 The use of the heroic couplet.
 Poetic form of the Romantic movement as compared to that of the 18th century. (Phelps, W. L.: *English Romantic Movement*.)
 Scottish poetry of *The Golden Treasury*.
 Patriotism in the poems in *The Golden Treasury*.
 The supernatural element in *The Golden Treasury*.
 The musical quality in some of the poems.
 Romanticism in the poetry of Scott.
 Melancholy in the poems of Gray and others.
 The nightingale as a subject of verse.
 The lark as a subject of verse.
 Blake as an artist.
 "Minor Poems"—meaning of term, significance of work.
 "Popular Poetry."
 The poems you like best.
 Why you like poetry, or do not care for it.
 Why poetry is such an important part of literature.
 The poetry of to-day as compared with that of *The Golden Treasury*. (Note magazine poetry, and small volumes published.)

PARKMAN

The Oregon Trail

The American Fur Company.
 Emigrant trains—wagons, outfits.
 The American guide as a type.
 Indian war methods.
 The passing of the buffalo.
 Marcus L. Whitman.
 The Oregon Expedition.
 Exploration to-day.
 The discovery of gold in California. ("The Century," 1890-92.)
 The Forty-Niners. ("The Century," 1890-92.)

A Journey over the Rockies sixty years ago. ("The Century," 1890-92.)

How Oregon was won.

Steps in the development of Oregon.

Oregon to-day.

What the great Northwest means to the nation.

"Go west, young man, go west!"

On board an observation train.

What the Panama Canal means to Oregon.

Brief review of some other book by Parkman.

Brief review of *The Winning of the West*, by Theodore Roosevelt.

Brief review of *Boots and Saddles*, by Elizabeth Custer.

Brief review of *Following the Guidon*, by Elizabeth Custer.

Brief review of *Tenting on the Plains*, by Elizabeth Custer.

Brief review of *The Boy Pathfinder*, a story of the Oregon Trail, by W. C. Sprague.

Brief review of *Pathfinders of the West*, or of *Conquest of the Great Northwest*, by Agnes C. Laut.

(These should be assigned only if the books have been read as supplementary reading by some members of the class.)

SCOTT

Ivanhoe

Let Rowena give Elgitha an account of the tournament, Elgitha asking questions and making comments with the freedom of a favorite.

Let Rowena give Edith an account of her experiences as a captive.

Let Isaac give Rebecca an account of his visit to Rotherwood.

Let Isaac and Kirjath Jairam talk over the probability of the knight's returning the horse. Let Isaac tell some of his experiences, giving reasons for trusting the knight, though Kirjath gives reasons against.

Let Locksley tell one of his followers about the tournament, with questions and comments from the hearer.

Let Richard tell Ivanhoe how he escaped from prison and reached England.

Let John and two of his followers make plans against Richard.

Let Richard and Ivanhoe discuss, on the way to Athelstane's funeral, the possibility of Cedric's forgiving Ivanhoe. Ivanhoe may introduce some narrative to show his father's character.

Let Locksley and several of his followers discuss Richard.

Let Rowena and Ivanhoe tell each other about experiences during their separation.

Let Rebecca tell her father her efforts to obtain a champion.

The story of Thackeray's continuation of *Ivanhoe*. *Christmas Books*.

The story of the Conquest. (English History.)

The battle of Hastings. (English History.)

Swine as property.

The change of ownership. (Traill: *Social England*, I, 240 ff. Old edition.)

Houses of the period. (Traill: *Social England*, I, 215 ff.)

Story of a real tournament. (Froissart's *Chronicles*.)

A tournament for a lady's hand. (Story of Melette, from *Belt and Spur*.)

A palmer's customs.

Some sport of our day compared to the tournament.

Account of a polo game witnessed by some member of the class.

Description of a suit of armor. (From pictures or from a suit in some museum. Ashdown, C. H.: *Arms and Armor*.)

A real Saxon castle. (Smith, H. E.: *The History of Conisborough Castle*. MacKenzie, J. D.: *Castles of England*.)

A real Norman castle. (Clark, G. T.: *Mediaeval Military Architecture*. Armitage, Ella S.: *The Early Norman Castles*.)

Story of the Crusade in which Richard had a part. (Histories. Archer, T. A.: *Crusade of Richard I*.)

Some story of a Crusade. (Archer and Kingsford: *The Crusades*. Church, A. J.: *The Crusaders*. Kelman, J. H.: *Stories from the Crusades*. Crawford, Marion: *Via Crucis*.)

Norman officials. (English History.)

Origin of the Knights Templars. (Encyclopedias.)

The real Richard. The real John. (English histories.)

The practice of archery. (Strutt, Joseph: *Sports and Pastimes*, bk. II, ch. I. Encyclopedias.)

The position of the thane. (Traill: *Social England*, I. See index.)

The thrall.

The professional fool.

The Jew in England in the time of John. (Jacobs, Joseph: *The Jews of Angevin England*. Milman: *History of the Jews*.)

The training of a knight. (Archer and Kingsford: *The Crusades*.)

Robin Hood: Character; manner of life; practices; followers. (Gilliat E.: *Forest Outlaws*. Pyle, Howard: *Merry Adventures of Robin Hood*. Tappan, M.: *Robin Hood: His Book*. Finnemore, John: *Story of Robin Hood and His Merry Men*.)

Stories of some of the Robin Hood ballads. (Any ballad book.)

Description of scenes in Sherwood Forest. (Rodgers, Joseph: *The Scenery of Sherwood Forest*, with account of some eminent people once residing there.)

Trial by champion.

Trial for witchcraft. (Scott, Walter: *Letters on Demonology and Witchcraft*.)

The real friars of Ivanhoe's time. (Jessup: *Coming of the Friars*. Traill: *Social England*, I.)

The duties of a squire. (Numerous instances in Froissart's *Chronicles*. Wright: *Homes*.)

Scott's idea of a hero.

Present idea of a hero.

SHAKSPERE

Description of Stratford. (Lee: *Stratford on Avon*.)

Description of Shakspere's birthplace. (Ward: *Shakspere's Town and Times*.)

Trinity Church.

The Grammar School at Stratford.

An anecdote of Shakspere's youth.

A London street in Shakspere's time. (Stephenson, H.: *Shakspere's London.*)

The reception of Queen Elizabeth at Kenilworth.

Boy-players in Elizabeth's time.

The London theaters of Shakspere's time.

The Shaksperean stage. (Albright, Victor: *The Shaksperean Stage.* Lawrence, W. J.: *The Elizabethan Playhouse.*)

Scenery in Shakspere's time.

Shakspere's contemporaries.

The sonneteers.

The novel in Shakspere's time.

Miracle plays. (Pollard: *Miracle Plays.* Spencer, M. Lyle: *Corpus Christi Pageants in England.*)

The Morality plays. (Manly: *Specimens of Pre-Shaksperean Drama.*)

Strolling players. (Matthews, B.: *Development of the Drama.*)

The first English comedy—*Ralph Roister Doister.*

The first English tragedy—*Gorboduc.*

The tragedy of blood. (Symonds: *Predecessors of Shakspere.*)

Shakspere as a conservator of the English language.

The popularity of Shakspere to-day.

The eighteenth century opinion of Shakspere.

The discovery of Shakspere in Germany.

Shakspere the teacher.

Julius Cæsar

Shakspere's use of his sources.

Shakspere's portrayal of Cæsar.

Use of Roman history in other plays.

Synopsis of *Coriolanus.*

Character sketch of Coriolanus.

The Antony of *Julius Cæsar* compared with the Antony of a later play.

Methods of revealing character in this play.

Methods of revealing character in a play as compared with a novel.

Shakspere's use of English history in plays.

The use of history in some modern play. (Fitch: *Nathan Hale*. Parker: *Disraeli*. Bulwer-Lytton: *Richelieu*.)

Julius Cæsar as a tragedy.

The use of the supernatural in the play.

Shakspere's use of the mob. (See also *Henry VI* and *Coriolanus*.)

The unity of the play.

The naming of the play.

The hero of the play.

The advisability of having the ghost visibly represented on the stage.

The respective responsibility of Brutus and Cassius for the assassination.

Comparison of the assassination of Cæsar with the assassination of Lincoln, Garfield, McKinley, or the attempted assassination of Roosevelt.

Comparison of the ideas of the conspirators with those of anarchists and nihilists of the present as to methods.

Was Antony sincere in his funeral oration?

Comparison of Brutus and Antony.

Comparison of Brutus and Cæsar.

Comparison of Brutus and Cassius.

Was Brutus justified, in your opinion, in his act?

The Merchant of Venice

Describe the appearance of some character in the play, as you have seen him portrayed on the stage, or as you imagine him.

Describe some scene from the play, as you have seen it or would stage it.

Tell the story of the whole play.

Tell the story of each plot.

Let Bassanio give Antonio an account of his first visit to Belmont, in which he describes Portia and her home, and gives an idea of her personality.

Taking the part of Shylock, tell the story of some transaction which Antonio foiled.

Taking the part of Antonio, tell the story of the same, as above.

In the person of Jessica, tell the story of her courtship and elopement, to Portia or Nerissa.

In the part of Lorenzo, tell it to Antonio, after the happy outcome.

As Portia, tell the story of her journey to Venice and her part in the trial.

Tell the story of *The Jew of Malta*, by Marlowe.

Compare the two plays.

Compare Barabbas and Shylock.

Compare Isaac of York and Shylock.

Compare Portia and Beatrice, or Rosalind.

Let Shylock and an officer talk, Shylock giving reasons for arresting Antonio, and the other trying to dissuade him.

Let Portia and Nerissa argue the keeping of the father's will.

Let Lorenzo and Jessica talk over the proposed elopement, Lorenzo pleading and overcoming objections.

Conversation between Arragon and Morocco, years afterward.

Let Bassanio and Antonio talk over the signing of the bond.

Let three on each side discuss the justification of Jessica.

Let three on each side discuss the justice of the verdict.

The sources of the play.

Macbeth

Shakspere's use of history.

Andrew Wyntoun's *Macbeth*. *Original Chronicles of Scotland*.

Holinshed's *Chronicles*.

Conversation between Macbeth and some lord over the chances of the crown for him, before the prophecy.

Conversation of Macbeth and Lady Macbeth, to which she refers, "Had I so sworn as you——"

Address of Malcolm or Macduff to soldiers.

Report of spy to Macbeth.

Conversation of two Scotch lords over the flight of Macduff to England.

Conversation between lords, about Macbeth's tyranny.

Discussion among several soldiers over leaving Macbeth's forces to join Malcolm's.

Had Macbeth fallen before the play opens?
 Was Macbeth more guilty than Lady Macbeth?
 Did Banquo have any knowledge of Macbeth's intentions, before the murder?
 Is the theory of Macbeth being the third murderer tenable?
 Should the ghost be visibly represented?
 Should the witch scenes be represented for a modern audience?
 Were Malcolm and Donalbain wise to flee?
 Should Macduff have gone to England?
 Was Lady Macbeth a "fiend-like queen"?
 Should the play be produced with modern scenery?
 Was Macbeth a victim of Fate?
 Is Duncan a kingly figure in the play?

STEVENSON

Stevenson as a poet.

Stevenson as a romancer.

Stevenson as a letter-writer.

Anecdote of Stevenson. (Low, Will H.: *Reminiscences*.)

St. Gaudens and Stevenson. (Low, Will H.: *Reminiscences*.)

Stevenson and the Samoans. (Moore: *With Stevenson in Samoa*.)

The personality of Stevenson as revealed in his writings.

Stevenson as an essayist.

The place of Stevenson in literature.

Stevenson's fight for life.

Treasure Island

The story of Captain Kidd.

A search for buried treasure.

The age of pirates.

What is a romance?

Some other writers of romance.

The story of *Kidnapped*.

The story of *David Balfour*.

The story of *The Master of Ballantrae*.

Incidents from some of these novels.

The double personality. (*Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde*.)

Travels with a Donkey and Inland Voyage

Description of Stevenson and Modestine in the rain.

Monastier. *The Studio*, Winter number, 1896-7.

Description of an inn scene.

An Eskimo sleeping bag.

Account of Maria. (Sterne: *Sentimental Journey*.)

Account of some monastery known to travelers.

Stevenson's religious differences with his parents.

Religious persecutions in Bohemia in the days of Huss.

The Massacre of St. Bartholomew.

The benefits of travel such as Stevenson's.

Stevenson's humor.

Stevenson's love of nature.

Stevenson's tolerance.

Stevenson's romance. (Meeting future wife.)

Camping at Silverado. (*The Silverado Squatters*.)

The boat that was not used. (Low W. H.: *Reminiscences*,

"Scribner's," Sept., 1908.)

Stevenson's arrest. (See *Across the Plains*.)

Stevenson's attitude toward children.

Account of *Through France and Belgium by River and Canal*,
by W. J. C. Moebs.

Stevenson's route, illustrated at board by map.

Account of Cevennes. (Hammerton: *In the Track of Stevenson*.)

Account of some scene from *Holland and Its People*, or from *A Wanderer in Holland*.

Account of some experience, or the plan of travel, or the purpose, from the following: Pennell, E. R.: *In Romany Land*. Taylor, Bayard: *Days Afoot*. Warner: *A Howadji on the Nile*. Smith, F. H.: *A White Umbrella in Mexico*. Williamson: *Through France in a Motor Car*.

TENNYSON

Idylls of the King

Who Arthur was. (Schofield: *English Literature, from Norman Conquest to Chaucer*, pp. 59-60. Maynadier: *The Arthur of the English Poets*, pp. 6-33.)

The story of the Round Table. (Maynadier: pp. 50-57.)

The Arthurian stories of France. (Schofield, Maynadier.)

The Arthurian stories of England. (Schofield, Maynadier.)

The Grail. (Schofield; Maynadier; Nutt, Alfred: *Legend of the Grail*.)

Launcelot. (Schofield, Maynadier.)

Merlin. (Schofield, Maynadier.)

Le Morte d'Arthur (Malory). What it was, use of legends, etc. (Any English Literature, Schofield, Maynadier.)

The Mabinogion. (Schofield, Maynadier. Translation by Lady Charlotte Guest.)

The story of Gawayne and the Green Knight. (Various translations.)

Sir Percival's youth. (*Lays of Marie de France*.)

Account of a tournament. (*Froissart's Chronicles*.)

Some knightly orders of reality. (See Knights of the Garter, Knights Templars, etc.)

What knighthood meant in the Middle Ages. (Introduction to Globe edition of Malory's *Le Morte d'Arthur*. Macmillan Co.)

What knighthood means now.

Tennyson's emphasis compared with Malory's.

Some other 19th century versions. (Maynadier: *The Arthur of the English Poets*.)

Chaucer's Knight. (*Prologue and Knight's Tale*.)

Tell the story of some Idyll not read in class.

Compare Galahad's quest of the Grail with Sir Launfal's.

Describe Abbey's pictures of the quest. (Boston Museum, reproductions in Copley Prints, and New York *Times* Supplement, March 24, 1912.)

Symbolism in the *Idylls*.

Incidents from *Morte d'Arthur* (Malory).
How Arthur won Excalibur. Bk. I, ch. 23.
How Sir Launcelot slew giants and made a castle free. Bk. VI, ch. 2.
The Joust of King Arthur. Bk. X, ch. 21.
How Sir Galahad fought at a tournament. Bk. XVII, ch. 1.
The adventures of Sir Percival. Bk. XIV.

Tennyson as a lyric poet.
Tennyson as an occasional poet.
Tennyson as a dramatist.
The laureateship.
The personality of Tennyson.
Tennyson's rank among English poets.
Poetry in the Victorian age.
Tennyson's poetry as a reflection of the age in which he lived (*The Princess, Locksley Hall*, etc.).
The friendship of Tennyson and Hallam.

EXAMPLES OF SPEECHES

FOR STUDY OF PLAN, COHERENCE, AND EFFECTIVENESS

INTRODUCTION OF WILLIAM J. BRYAN, FOR A LECTURE, BY WILLIAM GAYNOR, MAYOR OF NEW YORK

After dining with you on so recent an occasion, I feel entirely at home. You act as if you all felt at home, too. I doubt if there is another man on this continent who, considering the accident and the weather [there was a heavy rain. The whole city was anxiously awaiting the arrival of the Carpathia that night with the Titanic's passengers] could draw such an audience.

Dr. Reisner [pastor of church in which lecture was delivered] said you might not all agree with Mr. Bryan politically, but you did ethically. I must confess I don't understand that. It doesn't

seem quite square. When I was a boy, we always called the Methodist boys square. I thought the men were so too.

The greatest man is the teacher. Mr. Bryan is our greatest living teacher. He has run three times for the highest office. He was unsuccessful. But some men who were elected have not been successful. He has been successful. He has led our thought, more than anyone else. He has helped reforms, out of office. Sometimes the statesmen out of office are greater than the statesmen in. In both capacities, the statesman and the teacher, I now introduce him to you.

INTRODUCTION OF WILLIAM J. BRYAN, FOR LECTURE, "THE SIGNS OF THE TIMES," BEFORE PACKARD SCHOOL,
BY VICTOR J. DOWLING

No one could be more interested in the signs of the times than the graduates of the Packard Commercial School, for as they read these signs aright, or fail to read them correctly, very much of their future success will be added to or detracted from. There is no one better qualified to interpret for them the signs of the times than that distinguished and eloquent gentleman who has helped to erect so many of those signs during the past generation, and who, during twenty years of public life, in the white heat of partisan debate has left untouched in the conviction of the American people his intellectual and moral honesty. I present to you the Honorable William Jennings Bryan.

OPENING ADDRESS BY ELBERT BRINCKERHOFF AT BIBLE TERCENTENARY, NEW YORK, APRIL 25, 1911

In the absence of Mr. Theophilus A. Brouwer, the honored President of the American Bible Society, who is detained by illness, it falls to me as Vice-President to open this meeting by calling your attention to the relation of the Society to the Tercentenary celebration.

The American Bible Society for almost a century has been carrying on the work for which it was organized. This was to encourage a wider circulation of the Holy Scriptures, without note or comment, the only copies in the English language to be circulated by the Society to be the version set forth in 1611 and commonly known as the King James Version.

The American Bible Society is thoroughly unsectarian in its entire work—is essentially gratuitous and not remunerative. Since its organization over ninety million volumes of the Holy Scriptures have been issued, while the receipts of the Society, not including trust funds (of which the income only can be used), have been over thirty-four million dollars, all expended in circulating the Holy Scriptures.

At this anniversary of the three hundredth year of the King James Version of the English Bible, it seems fitting that the Society should present this summary of its active work in holding forth the Word of Life to the people of the United States and of the world, and emphasize the blessed work of three hundred years ago, inviting co-laborers, constituents and all interested in God's work to join in recognition of the leading hand of the Almighty, and without thought of creed, denomination, sect or nationality, as one people—with but the one God, and dwellers in this most favored of Christian nations, assemble ourselves to celebrate this eventful and historical anniversary.

In the name and on behalf of the American Bible Society, I have the honor of presenting the Rt. Rev. Bishop David H. Greer, who will preside over this meeting.

“Bible Society Record.”

SPEECH BY BISHOP DAVID H. GREER AT TERCENTENARY OF THE
KING JAMES BIBLE, NEW YORK, APRIL 25, 1911

We meet to-night to commemorate one of the most notable events, if not *the* most notable, in English-speaking Christendom—the translation three hundred years ago of the Old and New Testaments

into the English tongue. As our late distinguished fellow-townsman, the eminent biblical scholar, Dr. Philip Schaff, said, "That was the greatest blessing which the Reformation of the sixteenth century bestowed upon the Anglo-Saxon race, and whose hold upon the popular heart it has never lost." Other translations had been made before and some have been made since, and yet it is but the veriest commonplace to repeat what has been so often said, that, regarded and compared as literary products, none of them has surpassed the King James Version, or even, indeed, approached it. Done as it was at the flowering period of the English language, it still remains, in the purity, the terseness, and the dignity of its style the greatest of English classics. This is the general verdict of scholarship; so much so indeed that when a few years ago some of the ripest scholars of England and America undertook to give to the world a more accurate rendering of the original text they did not venture to set aside the Authorized English Version, but simply to revise it.

And not only was that version a great, far-reaching literary event; it was a great moral event, which liberated into the English-speaking world at a plastic and formative period those sterling moral qualities which have been ever since so distinctive of it. It helped to make and mold the Anglo-Saxon type of character, with its love of liberty, its respect for justice, its reverence for righteousness and its profound sense of personal responsibility. It quickened the public conscience and softened the public manners, and in no little measure served to form and fashion the Anglo-Saxon home and the Anglo-Saxon State.

And yet, even more than that, it was a great, far-reaching religious event, which set the people free from the bondage of superstitious fear, and brought them then, as it has brought them since, face to face with God, to whom they should carry, as into their ultimate courts, their human equity case.

All this, and much besides, you will hear this evening from the appointed speakers.

"Bible Society Record."

SPEECH BY JOHN PURROY MITCHEL, PRESIDENT BOARD OF ALDERMEN, WELCOMING DR. CARREL, OF FRANCE, ON BEHALF OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK

Mr. President, President Finley, Dr. Carrel, ladies and gentlemen:

When men have won to the highest rank in any walk of life, it is both natural and proper that their fellowmen should pay to them the tribute of admiration that courage, perseverance, labor and genius deserve. This is true even though the field of achievement be one in which signal service to humanity or to society is neither sought nor found. When, however, distinction comes as the result of a splendid contribution to the knowledge of the world, and a service to the human race that puts just a little further off suffering and death and brings happiness and health just a trifle closer to the grasp of men, then the tribute to the mind and heart that have achieved the work should be truer, broader, must be more sincere than when eminence attends on purely selfish service.

It is but a little thing, even for a great city like New York, to acknowledge so great a service by a tribute such as that we pay to-day to Dr. Carrel. Neither the official greetings nor this expression of the gratitude of his adopted city, this celebration conceived and organized by this great college nor the honor that is conferred upon him by the presence here and the praises of the President of the United States, are adequate for his wonderful achievements in the work of his profession or for the splendid, far-reaching service that he has rendered men. Dr. Carrel's service to this, his adopted, city lies not so much in the distinction that he has brought upon her by winning the Nobel Prize, a world honor in itself, but lies rather in the illimitable benefits that the people of this city, in common with mankind at large, will reap as a result of his wonderful discoveries. What may be the ultimate result of those discoveries, what may be the ultimate result of the successful demonstration that arteries and organs may be transplanted from one body to another and still retain life and

function, and that the life of tissues and of organs may be sustained apart from the organisms in which they grow, no man may predict to-day. But, my friends, the possibilities in ever widening vistas, open to the imagination, are limitless.

Dr. Carrel, the city of New York greets you as a benefactor of your race. She felicitates you upon the honors that have come upon you, and she acknowledges with gratitude the distinction that, in winning them, you have brought upon her. She is proud of you as a citizen. You, sir, in common with hundreds of thousands of citizens of this city, were born in another land. None the less, sir, she looks upon you as she looks upon them, as a New Yorker. She trusts that you may have become attached to her as she has become attached to you, and that, despite the alluring offers that will undoubtedly be made to draw you elsewhere, you will remain here, a citizen of New York, serving your city and serving mankind in the future as you have in the past, with honor to yourself and distinction to the city of New York.

"City College Quarterly."

RESPONSE OF DR. CARREL

I am deeply affected by the extraordinary honor which is done to me by this assembly. No man of science has ever received such a splendid public recognition. There are no words by which I could express to you my gratitude for it.

Almost every scientific progress which appears to be due to the efforts of one individual is really the indirect result of the forgotten or unknown work of many others. It makes me very happy to think that this exceptional honor goes above me to the men who have inspired or rendered possible the researches which brought a Nobel Prize to this country.

When I was still a medical student in Lyons, my thoughts wandered often through the fields open to science by the genius of Claude Bernard and Pasteur and developed by Paul Bert and by Ollier, my first master in surgery. The realization of some of the dreams inspired by those great men was rendered possible

by the Rockefeller Institute. To Dr. Flexner, its director, and to the spirit given by him to the Institute was due, in a large measure, the success of my experiments. Therefore, a great part of the wonderful honor bestowed on me belongs to the men who have founded, organized and directed the first institution of scientific research in America.

With all my heart, I thank you.

"City College Quarterly."

ADDRESS AT OPENING OF CONFERENCE ON BALKAN SETTLEMENT,
LONDON, BY SIR EDWARD GREY

Gentlemen: His majesty the King desires me to convey to you his welcome and to express his best wishes for the success of your labors. It is my agreeable duty to welcome you on behalf of his majesty's government and to say with what pleasure your presence is regarded in this country. His majesty the King, being anxious to facilitate your task in every way, has placed these rooms in St. James's Palace at your disposal. I trust you will find them suitable, and at the same time I assure you that his majesty's government will do all in its power to promote your convenience.

You will, I believe, find in this country an atmosphere of calm and impartiality that will be favorable to your work, and within these rooms which you occupy you will be really on neutral ground, where there will be no politics except your own.

There are difficulties in all negotiations for peace after a war. I will not attempt to estimate what they may be in your case. They have been no doubt the subject of full instructions to each set of delegates from their respective governments, but there can be no nobler task than to overcome these difficulties and to accomplish peace as a result of your own efforts and your own work. In this way you will lay foundations on which I trust will be built by true wisdom and statesmanship the prosperity, moral, economical and national, of your respective countries. Without that statesmanship the gains of war are of little or no worth to future generations. With that statesmanship the losses of war can be repaired

and bitterness merged in the realization of the blessings of peace.

I will say no more except to wish you success in your task and to assure you that you have the good will of every one in the object for which you have assembled here, and that by accomplishing peace you will secure the respect of the whole of Europe.

“New York Tribune.”

THOMAS HARDY'S REPLY WHEN PRESENTED WITH THE GOLD MEDAL
OF THE ROYAL SOCIETY OF LITERATURE ON THE SEVENTY-
SECOND ANNIVERSARY OF HIS BIRTH

In thanking the Royal Society of Literature and its Academic Committee very warmly for this interesting and valuable gift, I need hardly say that the offer of it came quite as a surprise to myself, of which the committee will be aware. I am, to be sure, rather an old boy to receive a medal, and am particularly unfortunate in having no younger boy to whom I can hand it on; so that, without undervaluing the receipt of it—rather, indeed, because I value it so highly—I have been thinking whether prizes of some kind could not be offered by the society to makers of literature earlier in life to urge them to further efforts.

There is no doubt that any sort of incentive to the cultivation and production of pure literature is of immense value in these latter days, and awards by the Royal Society of Literature should be among the strongest. An appreciation of what is real literature, and efforts to keep real literature alive, have, in truth, become imperative, if the taste for it is not to be entirely lost, and, with the loss of that taste, its longer life in the English language. While millions have lately been learning to read, few of them have been learning to discriminate; and the result is an appalling increase every day in slipshod writing that would not have been tolerated for one moment a hundred years ago.

I don't quite like to say so, but I fear that the vast increase of hurried descriptive reporting in the newspapers is largely responsible for this in England; writing done by men, and still more by women, who are utterly incapable of, and unconscious of, that ‘grin of

delight' which, William Morris assured us, comes over the real artist either in letters or in other forms of art at a close approximation to, if not an exact achievement of, his ideal. Then the increasing influx of American journals, fearfully and wonderfully worded, helps on the indifference to literary form. Their influence has been strongly apparent of late years in our English newspapers, where one often now meets with headlines in staring capitals that are phrases of no language whatever, and often incomprehensible at a casual glance. Every kind of reward, prize, or grant, therefore, which urges omnivorous readers and incipient writers toward appreciating the splendors of English undefiled, and the desire of producing such for themselves, is of immense value.

For my own part I think—though all writers may not agree with me—that the shortest way to good prose is by the route of good verse. The apparent paradox—I cannot remember who first expressed it—that the best poetry is the best prose ceases on examination to be a paradox and becomes a truism. Anybody may test it for himself by taking any fine lines in verse and, casting off the fetters of meter and rhyme that seem to bind the poet, trying to express the same ideas more freely and accurately in prose. He will find that it cannot be done; the words of the verse—fettered as he thought them—are the only words that will convey the ideas that were intended to be conveyed.

I know that it is said in Fleet Street that poetry is dead. But this only means that it is dead in Fleet Street. Poetry itself cannot die, as George Sand once eloquently wrote in her novel called "*André*." I cannot do better than wind up these rambling remarks with some of her words on this question: "Poesy cannot die. Should she find for refuge but the brain of a single man she would yet have centuries of life, for she would leap out of it like the lava from Vesuvius and mark out a way for herself among the most prosaic realities. Despite her overturned temples and the false gods adored among their ruins, she is immortal as the perfume of the flowers and the splendor of the skies."

"New York Times" Book Review.

ADDRESS TO CHAIRMAN AT DIRECTORS' MEETING,
BY CHARLES M. CABOT

In the March [1911] number of the AMERICAN MAGAZINE there appeared an article dealing with certain economic conditions obtaining among the employees of this corporation, chiefly those employed in the steel mills at or near Pittsburgh. It is not my purpose at this time to enter into a discussion as to the merits of the article referred to, except to express my belief that, if the statements there made are true, the conditions so revealed constitute a serious menace to the continued success of this corporation, both in its business as an employer of labor and in its reputation as an organization which has been willing at all times to deal openly and frankly with industrial conditions. I believe that it is the right of the stockholders of this corporation to be fully informed as to the truth of the statements contained in this article, in order that, if such statements are found to be based on facts, the stockholders may consider whether or not some action should be taken by the officers of this corporation with a view to remedying the relations that now obtain between this corporation and its employees.

Stenographic report published in "American Magazine."

PART OF SPEECH BEFORE TEACHERS' MEETING, BY LULU M.
M'CORMICK, PRINCIPAL OF CENTRAL SCHOOL,
CHEYENNE, WY.

When Mr. Fee asked me to select a topic and lead a discussion this afternoon, I naturally saw an opportunity of focusing your attention on the matter that is giving me the most worry. You may well forgive the egotism of dragging my own problems into the limelight. I give you my word I would rather listen to the woes of any one of you—indeed I would rather sit through the rehearsal of the woes of each and every one of you, than to stand up here before you and tell my own. But if there is relief in telling troubles to one policeman, as somewhere I have heard there is, great good should come from confiding in fifty teachers.

Let me tell you then, in the strictest confidence of course, that my people waste a tremendous lot in energy in school—and that I waste a deal of it myself. Do your people and do you? If your people and you do not, why am I so much stupider as to allow my people to do so, and to do it myself? It isn't that I want to, and it isn't that the children want to, and it certainly isn't that I want the children to—but waste it we do.

And now to tell you how we do it. The pupils fritter it away in careless preparation of assigned lessons, in recitations, the direct result of the careless preparation, and in miserably spelled and atrociously punctuated scribbles when it comes to written work, a second direct result of the careless preparation. All this after ten weeks of the best I could do for them. However, I hope to be able to do more for them after Mr. Schwiering gives his talk on Teaching Jack How to Study. One big waste of pupils' energies will have been eliminated when we succeed in teaching our girls and boys how to concentrate on a lesson and really master it.

But this is not all—not even the worst. When I give a direction there are pupils in my room who still hesitate and finish up something else before obeying. This after ten weeks. I have pupils who still can not copy accurately. I have pupils who still dream over an open book during study periods as though the theory of elbow absorption had not been exploded long ago. I have pupils who still play nervously with pencils or erasers, pupils who still tap with fingers or feet, pupils (dear, sweet girls these are) who still smile cheerfully across the aisle, some hardened criminals who even whisper—and yet, and yet—there isn't one really bad youngster in my whole class, not one who does any of these awful things maliciously—but the energy they waste is enormous, and the energy I waste worrying about it is little less.

Waste—the word haunts many of my waking and some of my sleeping moments. I think of it when I see a boy tapping aimlessly with his pencil and realize how his mind is stagnating while that pencil taps. I can multiply the time it takes me to call him back to earth by the number of us in the room, and have the definite waste of time—but who can estimate his loss of energy and mine?

One pair of wandering eyes during an explanation dissipates my enthusiasm; and energy—whole horse powers of it—goes glimmering when in history note books I find here an extra “e” in Henry, there a missing “a” in boundary, or any other evidence of gross carelessness in copying.

The point I have tried to make so far is that my pupils waste force: first, by not knowing how to apply it to the subject in hand; second, by habits of idleness, carelessness, irresponsibility; and, third, that I lose real teaching power by being annoyed when these habits are not abandoned.

Perhaps I am over-fussy. One of my cleverest girls implied as much in her last composition. The subject was, “How Can I Improve?” And she defended every fault to which I had ever called her attention. She hasn’t many serious ones. Her very deadliest sin happens to be smiling, and in its defense she actually quoted “Laugh and the world laughs with you.” She moralized too on the fact that so many things commendable everywhere else were wrong in school. If you didn’t smile at home you were called a grouch; if you did in school, you were called down. Her epigrams amused me, but failed to swerve me from my desire to develop a more intense application to work.

By permission of the author. “The Tribune,” Cheyenne, Wy.

ADDRESS AT SESSION OF NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE
BY JANE ADDAMS, HULL HOUSE, CHICAGO

THE OPERATION OF THE ILLINOIS CHILD LABOR LAW

It is very gratifying to state the situation for Illinois. For while in the nation as a whole child labor is growing—that is, we are having each year in America more children at work than was true of the previous—we are able to say that that statement is not true of Illinois. There has been a decided decrease in Illinois in the number of children at work during the last four years. Notwithstanding the annual increase in the population, and in spite of the fact that our manufactures are increasing, we have a very

decided decrease in the number of children working both actually and proportionately. In 1901, in proportion to the total number of workers the child workers in Illinois was 4.1 per cent.; in 1902 it was 3.7 per cent., and in 1903 it was 2.9 per cent., and in 1904 it was 1.9 per cent., so you see they are steadily and rapidly decreasing.

Mr. Davies, the State Factory Inspector, who has attended the various conventions, says that this is the lowest number of children in proportion to the adult working population of any State in the Union. And if we take this statement in connection with the other statement that we have heard here, that Illinois is the third manufacturing State in the Union, we have reason to be proud of our showing, and we are proud to have the Governor preside at a meeting when we can make such a good report to him for his State.

Another interesting development in regard to Illinois comes in connection with the educational test provided in our child labor law, for, while it is difficult to have any practical statistics on child labor, some of the things happening in Illinois since the new child labor law went into effect are most significant. Our law not only requires an educational test, but it provides a place in which it shall be made, and this test for all the public and parochial schools of Chicago being made in one place, enables us to know how many children receive the certificates each year, and something more about them. The total number of children who have received certificates in the last three years for the Chicago office has been 26,886. Out of that number we know they can all read and write something. I am sorry to say that they cannot all read and write English, but they can read and write some language, and the large majority of them, of course, read and write English. We have the satisfaction of knowing that, of the nearly 27,000 children who have gone to work in Illinois in the past four years, they have all passed the literacy test. They have, further, all been weighed and measured, which may be an inaccurate test, but it affords, at any rate, a guaranty outside of the parents' word that they have attained an average height and age. That is something to know. For a long time we did not know how many children were at work, how much they

knew, nor of what size they were—whether they were big enough for the age of fourteen years or only big enough for the age of ten.

The increased attendance in the schools has been very marked since this law has been enforced. If the parents are once thoroughly convinced—and the illiterate parents, most of all—that a child cannot go out and earn money until he can read and write, of course they will see to it that their children learn to read and write as quickly as possible. We have taken some statistics from a school in the stock-yards district, and the increase in the attendance in the fourth and fifth grades is very marked. The attendance in one school in the fifth grade for the year before the law went into effect averaged 53, in the year after the law had been put into effect in the fifth grade in the same school it averaged 159 pupils. Allowing something for the natural increase in population, it would still leave a very large proportion, which was to be accounted for only by the enforcement of the new law. And this educational test is resulting in good in other ways: it is slowly remedying one of the worst evils of immigration. It has been the custom for many years for immigrants already settled here to bring over boys and girls who were but remotely related to them and too young to protect themselves, in order to exploit them. They took all their wages in return for scanty food and shelter, but now that these children must learn to read and write before they can go to work it is no longer profitable to have them sent over, and I assure you there is a very marked decrease in this enforced immigration in those States in which the educational provision is rigidly enforced.

The child labor law is, further, having a marked influence upon the immigrant as he slowly learns that a child cannot go to work until he has reached a certain physical and mental well-being, that there is a standard in American life, and it seems to some of us that all these things afford a much better way for new people to learn about America than that they should merely be able to repeat the Constitution of the United States.

I want to say just a word in regard to the dangers surrounding our new child labor law. We, too, have had our long-continued trouble with the glass workers. I suppose legislation in regard to

child labor has never been attempted but what its friends at the legislature have encountered the lobbyists from the glass works. We have been told that all the glass works will move out of the State of Illinois if we have a rigid child labor law, and yet each year we find that the glass works have extended and improved their plants, and that at least two firms have moved into the State since this law has been enacted and enforced. So that we no longer fear them, but there is a feature of the child labor law in Illinois that is at present sustaining sharp attack from the theatrical people, and it is just here where public opinion may be of great value. If a child under sixteen years is allowed to play in any theater after seven o'clock the law is violated, and to make any exception to the law is most dangerous. Just imagine an honest farmer at the next session of the legislature saying, "You make an exception for the people in Chicago, you allow the children to play in the theaters at night, but you won't allow a boy to make an honest living in the glass works." One can easily see that the entire law would be weakened.

Two cases of the infraction of the law by theatrical people are now awaiting decision in the Superior Court of Illinois, and another case has been indicted before the grand jury, and we will have to wait for the judge's opinion as to the application of the law to theaters.

But in the meantime it will make a great difference if when this law is broken at the theatrical performances the public would protest and declare that it attended the theater to see the art of acting and not the exploitation of children. We like to see a child on the stage because it moves our sympathies and touches our sensibilities; we say that it is true to life, and we think that we like acting of that kind, when, on the contrary, it is the lack of acting which we like, the touch of reality which the child brings to the stage. . . .

Let us see if we cannot put aside this emotionalism and stand by the child labor law from the side of art as well as humanity. It is easy to discuss the wrongs of the South and to agitate for laws affecting manufacturers, but here in Chicago where in relation to the theaters the law touches us directly we are in sympathy with the law, and here is an opportunity to aid in its enforcement, and I hope that we will all endeavor to do our share.

By permission of National Child Labor Committee.

PORTION OF ADDRESS BEFORE INDIANA Y. M. C. A.

BY FAIRFAX HARRISON,
PRESIDENT, CHICAGO, INDIANAPOLIS & LOUISVILLE R. R.

THE EVIL CONSEQUENCES TO INDUSTRY OF THE EXISTING CONFLICT

Perhaps the greatest evil of this conflict is visited actually or potentially upon the public, which is entitled to a uniform and uninterrupted conduct of the transportation facilities on which it depends more and more every year, but it is not proposed to go into that important phase of the question here. Our subject is the effect upon the parties to the conflict.

There are three recognizable consequences of this conflict which have had an evil effect upon the capital invested in railroads and as many of injurious effect upon labor. Let us examine them in turn.

Not the least element of the growing strength of labor in this conflict is that labor is to-day popular, in the sense in which control of political policy is accomplished in a progressive democracy by what is popular. It represents votes and is heeded by legislatures. Its attitude of conflict with the management of the railways, which represent the capital invested in them, was not the cause of the assumption of the power of regulation of the railways by government; the managers themselves are responsible for that, but, since regulation became an accomplished fact, the activity of labor in the legislature has been the inspiration of many of the laws of unnecessary and oppressive regulation which have been enacted. I am myself an advocate of regulation of the railways by government, but I am unable to blink the fact that what we have had has not always been what we may fairly expect to have, the regulation which considers all alike. In the period of adjustment of the last few years the experience of every railway manager has been that many of the measures of regulation of railways have been futile and merely wasteful of money sorely needed for improvement of facilities which have in consequence been postponed. Many of these measures have originated in mere opportunism of the politician, who, seeking

to commend himself to his constituents by adroit insistence upon minor wrongs, secures the enactment of a general law prescribing an invariable and expensive practice for the operation of all railroads, the suggestion for which had its origin in the failure of a particular railroad in respect of its handling of a particular shipment; but there are those also, and they are not few, which have been the direct consequence of the conflict of labor and capital. The managements of the railways have not been esteemed by legislatures in recent years for historical reasons which are not creditable to either of them, and it has been as easy for organized labor as for the ambitious politician to secure the passage of a law to make a railroad wince.

But more serious than this is the effect upon the railroads of the steady demands of labor for fixed and invariable increases of wages. There is no railway manager to-day, I venture to assert, who does not want all his employees to be well paid, to share in prosperity when prosperity exists, and to be rewarded by promotion for efficient and loyal services. If he is not able to give this feeling expression in all deserving cases it is because his constant cost for the numerically most important classes of labor has increased in greater proportion than the increases of revenue out of which that cost must come. The margin necessary for the successful administration of any industry has been thereby progressively narrowed, until the point of danger to credit even of the most prosperous roads is now distinctly visible, as anyone can testify who has railroad securities for sale which he bought ten years ago. This is a situation which would be difficult in an industry which could stand still, but in an industry of which the life is growth, it discourages those who are invited to risk the new capital necessary to make even the improvements, which, by increasing efficiency, will reduce expenses and so widen the margin again; much less will the funds be forthcoming for the improvements demanded by the public for comfort and convenience. In the end the tendency jeopards the very capital already invested.

Another consequence of the conflict in its effect upon capital is perhaps irrevocably accomplished already. It is the change which uncertainty of income has had upon the point of view of investors.

Time was when railroad stocks were a favorite form of investment, not only because they promised substantial profit by increment of value, but because they spelled stability of income. To-day railroad stocks are not in favor, and whenever money is now invested in railroads (except in extraordinary cases, each of which has its historical explanation), the form of investment is the bond. In other words, the investor is no longer a partner in the business, or, to use the good old Elizabethan word, an adventurer; but has become a money lender. He prefers the right to foreclose a mortgage to an uncertain chance of a profit secured by good management and efficient operation. The capital already invested in the original construction of a railway suffers the consequence of this change of investing opinion, for it must now stand as the margin of the new investor and must risk being wiped out for his benefit and security. Whenever, as has happened in recent years, a railroad is faced by unconcerned and unyielding demands of labor at a time when it is unable both to respond to them and to maintain its credit, this risk is imminent. It is a consequence of war.

As it concerns labor, the conflict is not less dangerous in its consequences. We hear much to-day of the increased cost of living. It is urged as a ground for advancing wages, even when the inability of the industry to do so and continue to prosper is apparent. The argument is that those who produce what the industry markets are entitled to the first consideration in the provision of the necessities of life, and where that argument is supported by facts it is most persuasive. It is not, however, as sound an argument in the railway industry to-day as it was some years ago. While the cost of certain necessities of life has indubitably increased, the scale of living of the railway employee has increased in greater ratio and not the least factor in this has been the increases in railway wages. This is the vicious circle of prosperity. I read the other day an old book, Robert Wallace's "Dissertation on the Numbers of Mankind," published in 1753, before the days of political economy, and there came upon a suggestive comment on this subject:

"Operose manufactures of linen, wool and silk, toys and curiosities of wood, metals or earth, elegant furniture, paintings, statues, and

all the refinements of an opulent trading nation, tend," he says, "to multiply men's wants, make the most necessary and substantial things dearer and in general increase the expenses of living."

This is an eighteenth century expression of a thought which an American of our time, who represents in his own life the success of individual initiative, industry and economy, has well phrased in the notable epigram that "It is not the high cost of living from which we suffer but the cost of high living." There is many an American railway employee who, if he searches his heart, will admit that the large increases in wages which have been secured for him in recent years have brought him very little real comfort. I was talking the other day with a locomotive engineer who is thirty-five years old and has drawn handsome pay for most of his industrial life. He told me that his father, who had been a runner on the same road, had saved and left behind him \$6,000, living meanwhile a self-respecting life on very much less wages than his son now gets.

"Not only have I been unable to save anything," said the son to me, "but I have spent some of the old man's savings."

"What did you do with your last increase in pay?" I asked.

"Well, my wife said that the neighbors thought she should have a silk dress, and the girls wanted a piano, and so it went; in the end I did not find myself any better off than I was before."

This means, if it means anything, that the present position of labor in its conflict with capital is deemed to justify the expectation of continued increases in pay without regard to industrial conditions, an assurance which breeds habits of extravagance which are harmful to the individual. In other words, the increased pay is a factor in creating the high cost of living.

As the conflict is now waged, the lion's share goes to the most powerful organization, and the weak among the employees alone suffer. It is an indisputable fact that some classes of railway employees are now highly paid, both actually and relatively, and that other classes are not on the same basis in proportion to the value of their services. This is an inequality in the same industry which one can understand is intolerable to a spirited man, and indeed pro-

duces some of the worst consequences of the present system, both upon the employer and employee, but chiefly upon the latter.

Finally, the present system, which required in the beginning a well disciplined and cohesive organization for self protection, now results sometimes in stifling the ambition of the individual by an assurance of drab uniformity of treatment. It is not necessary to press the point. The warmest advocates of conservatively managed labor unions, and I am proud to include myself in the number, recognize the danger and the risk of this necessity of the system.

What, then, of the future, if the present conflict continues?

For the management of industry the conflict has been a stimulus to greater efficiency and the economical investment of new capital. As the wages of labor increased, an attempt to offset the increased expense by economy in operation has resulted, and vast sums have been spent, for example, in reducing grades and increasing power, to secure greater unit train loads, but the limit to this kind of economy is in sight, if it has not been reached. The candid fact is that, although other branches of industry are at this moment enjoying great prosperity, the railroads, doing the largest business in their history and passing through their treasuries the largest revenues they have ever realized, are in a more precarious condition than ever they have been, such is the burden of their expenses. It is absolutely necessary to the railroads that something shall be done to relieve the present tense situation and enable them to face the future with confidence, and I believe that the way to accomplish this is to settle the conflict of labor and capital in the railway industry on an enduring basis. Other remedies are mere salves on that sore.

For labor also the future is not assured under existing conditions. Already there have been expressions of discontent on the part of other classes of the community with what they call the preferred position of railroad labor. The most industrious and successful farmers and storekeepers in the country along the line seldom make as much net money in the year as do the railway employees stationed at those towns, and nothing like as much as those they see going by on the trains. They are, however, a large numerical majority

of those who pay freight charges, and they now complain against the freight rates largely because they think these rates might be less if such relatively high wages were not paid to certain classes of railroad employees. If that class of the community speaks it is likely to be heard in the legislatures more sympathetically than the railroad managements are heard. All it lacks at the moment is organization and this it can learn from the successful experience of labor.

Whenever any class of society becomes so powerful as, in the abuse of its power, to affect injuriously the lives, liberty or the pursuit of happiness of or by any other considerable class or classes of society, the consequence, under the existing régime, is for government to lay the heavy hand of regulating authority upon it. This may happen sooner or later, but it is inevitable. Eighteen months ago, in a public address, reasoning from the same premises, I ventured to predict that the public press could not escape such legislation; and we find to-day an act of Congress regulating newspapers on the statute books. It is not impossible that organized labor may hereafter be faced with a strong and sustained public control of its activities. It would be the logic of the last phase of the present conflict.—[Mr. Harrison then suggests a remedy.]

By permission of the author. "Railway Gazette."

REPLY BY CHARLES EVANS HUGHES TO COMMITTEE APPOINTED TO
NOTIFY HIM OF HIS NOMINATION FOR MAYOR OF
NEW YORK CITY, OCTOBER 9, 1905*

Mr. Chairman and Gentlemen of the Notification Committee:

You summon me to what you believe a public duty, and I shall not answer that summons by referring to considerations merely personal however important they might be if the question were one of personal preference.

You and the others who have urged me to accept the nomination have not rested the request upon the basis of partisan obligation,

* Addresses and Papers of Charles Evans Hughes, G. P. Putman's Sons. By permission.

but upon the more secure foundation of duty to the community. It has been impressed upon me that the Republican party is seeking to raise a standard to which, regardless of party, all men may resort who desire to see our city free from the pervasive influence of an organization whose motive is gain and not service.

I am not insensible to this appeal, and I fully appreciate the responsibility of the position in which, against my will, I have been placed. The letters which I have received and the personal appeals which have been made show very clearly that there is a division of sentiment as to the course I should pursue, and that either action I might take would be viewed with extreme disfavor by men whose judgment I respect and of whose sincerity there can be no question.

In this dilemma I have simply to do my duty as I see it. In my judgment I have no right to accept the nomination. A paramount public duty forbids it. It is not necessary to enlarge upon the importance of the insurance investigation. That is undisputed. It is dealing with questions vital to the interests of millions of our fellow citizens throughout the land. It presents an opportunity for public service second to none, and involves a correlative responsibility. I have devoted myself unreservedly to this work. It commands all my energies. It is imperative that I continue in it. You have frankly recognized that it must continue unembarrassed and with unimpaired efficiency. But it is entirely clear to me that this cannot be if I accept the nomination.

You know how desirous I have been that the investigation should not be colored by any suggestion of political motive. Whatever confidence it has inspired has been due to absolute independence of political considerations. It is not sufficient to say that an acceptance of this nomination, coming to me unsought and despite an unequivocal statement of my position, would not deflect from my course by a hair's breadth, and that I should remain, and that you intend that I should remain, entirely untrammeled. The non-political character of the investigation and its freedom from bias either of fear or favor, not only must exist, but must be recognized. I cannot permit them by any action of mine to become matters of debate.

There are abundant opportunities for misconstruction. Doubtless many abuses will remain undisclosed, many grievous wrongs to which the evidence points from time to time may be found unsusceptible of proof, many promising clues will be taken up in vain. Were I with the best of intentions to accept the nomination, it is my conviction that the work of the investigation would be largely discredited; its motives would be impugned and its integrity assailed. To many it would appear that its course would be shaped and its lines of inquiry would be chosen, developed, or abandoned as political ambition might prompt or political exigency demand.

Such a situation would be intolerable. There is only one course open. The legislative inquiry must proceed with convincing disinterestedness. Its great opportunities must not be imperilled by alienating the support to which it is entitled or by giving the slightest occasion for questioning the sincerity and single-mindedness with which it is conducted.

There is, however, another consideration which is to me conclusive. The work of the investigation is laborious and exacting. It taxes the strength of the counsel of the committee to its limit. It is performed under great strain. Whatever success is gained is the result of unremitting toil and undivided attention. There is no wizardry in it.

It is idle to suppose that, if I accepted your nomination, I could do my part of the work of the investigation efficiently. I may be pardoned for saying that I am a better judge of what that work requires than any one apart from my associates. It requires every moment of available time. It requires endeavor secure from interruption and a mind free from distraction. It has been suggested that it would not be necessary for me to make an active canvass, that I should not be obliged to make a speech, to attend a meeting, or even write a letter. In effect, you ask me to enter upon a campaign in which important questions should be discussed and brought home to the conscience of the people with my mouth closed and my hands tied. Apart from a natural disinclination to place myself in such a position, I believe the plan to be wholly impracticable. But, assuming it to be carried out as fully as is

contemplated, it would still leave a large demand upon time and nervous energy which would be inexorable and would introduce an element of distraction most injurious to the investigation. I do not believe that the man lives, and certainly I am not the man, who, while a candidate for the mayoralty, could perform with proper efficiency that part of the work which has been devolved upon me in the pending inquiry. If I were to accept the nomination for the high office of Mayor of this city, I should be obliged to curtail this work, and this I have no right to do.

For your expression of confidence I thank you. The honor you would confer upon me I most highly esteem. Your generous approval and the unanimity and enthusiasm with which the nomination was made I warmly appreciate. But I have assumed obligations of the first importance which make it impossible for me to meet your wishes. I must therefore respectfully decline the nomination.

ADDRESS DELIVERED BEFORE CHAMBER OF COMMERCE BY CHARLES
W. ELIOT, HARVARD UNIVERSITY

USES OF EDUCATION FOR BUSINESS*

Before we can talk together to advantage about the value of education in business, we ought to come to a common understanding about the sort of education we mean and the sort of business. Nobody doubts that primary and grammar school training are useful to everybody; or that high school training is advantageous for a clerk, salesman, commercial traveler, or skilled workman; or that technical or scientific school training is useful to an engineer, chemist, electrician, mechanician, or miner. Our question is, of what use is the education called "liberal" to a man of business? The education called liberal has undergone a great expansion during our generation, and is now, in the best institutions, thoroughly conformed to modern uses. All universities worthy of the name—even the oldest and most conservative—now supply a

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broad and free range of studies, which includes the ancient subjects, but establishes on a perfect equality with them the new and vaster subjects of modern languages and literature, history, political science, and natural science. We must not think of the liberal education of to-day as dealing with a dead past—with dead languages, buried peoples, and exploded philosophies; on the contrary, everything which universities now teach is quick with life and capable of application to modern uses. They teach indeed the languages and literature of Judea and Greece and Rome; but it is because those literatures are instinct with eternal life. They teach mathematics, but it is the mathematics mostly created within the lifetime of the older men here present. In teaching English, French, and German they are teaching the modern vehicles of all learning—just what Latin was in mediæval times. As to history, political science, and natural science, the subjects themselves and all the methods by which they are taught may properly be said to be new within a century. Liberal education is not to be justly regarded as something dry, withered, and effete; it is as full of sap as the cedars of Lebanon.

And what sort of business do we mean? Surely the larger sorts of legitimate and honorable business; that business which is of advantage to both buyer and seller, and to producer, distributor and consumer alike, whether individuals or nations, which makes common some useful thing which has been rare, or makes accessible to the masses good things which have been kept within reach only of the few; that great art of production and exchange which through the centuries has increased human comfort, cherished peace, fostered the fine arts, developed the pregnant principle of associated action, and promoted both public security and public property.

With this understanding of what we mean by education on the one hand and business on the other, let us see if there can be any doubt as to the nature of the relations between them. The business man in large affairs needs keen observation, a quick mental grasp of new subjects, and a wide range of knowledge. Whence come these powers and attainments—either to the educated or to the uneducated—save through practice and study? But education

is only early systematic practice and study under guidance. The object of all good education is to develop just these powers—accuracy in observation, quickness and certainty in seizing upon the main points of a new subject, and discrimination in separating the trivial from the important in great masses of facts. This is what liberal education does for the physician, the lawyer, the minister, the scientist. This is what it can do also for the man of business; to give a mental power is one of the main ends of the higher education. Is not active business a field in which mental power finds full play? Again education imparts knowledge, and who has greater need to know economics, history, and natural science than the man of business?

Farther, liberal education develops a sense of right, duty, and honor; and more and more, in the modern world, large business rests on rectitude and honor, as well as on good judgment. Education does this through the contemplation and study of the moral ideals of our race; not in drowsiness or dreaminess or in mere vague enjoyment of poetic and religious abstractions, but in the resolute purpose to apply spiritual ideals to actual life. The true university fosters ideals, but always to urge that they be put into practice in the real world. When the universities hold up before their youth the great Semitic ideals which were embodied in the Decalogue, they mean that those ideals should be applied in politics. When they teach their young men that Asiatic ideal of unknown antiquity, the Golden Rule, they mean that their disciples shall apply it to business; when they inculcate that comprehensive maxim of Christian ethics, "Ye are all members of one another," they mean that this moral principle is applicable to all human relations, whether between individuals, families, states, or nations.

Again, higher education has always made great account of the power of expression in speech and writing, whence has risen an opinion that liberal education must be less useful to the man of business than to the lawyer or minister, because the business man has less need than they of this power. Have we not all seen, in recent years, that leading men of business, particularly those who act for corporations, have great need of a highly trained mind of

clear and convincing expression? Business men need in speech and writing all the Roman terseness and French clearness; the graces and elegancies of literary style they may indeed dispense with, but not with the greater qualities of compactness, accuracy, and vigor. It is a liberal education indeed which teaches a youth of fair parts and reasonable industry to speak and write his native language strongly, accurately, and persuasively. That one attainment is sufficient reward for the whole long course of twelve years spent in liberal study.

But you say: This is all theory; what are the facts with regard to the connection between higher education and successful business life? Among the young men who have graduated from Harvard University within forty years there have been many cases of rapid advancement from the bottom to the top of the business corporations in great variety. A young man leaves college at twenty-three and goes into a cotton mill at the bottom; and in four years he is superintendent. Another lands in a western city, three days after his graduation, without a dollar, and without a friend in the city, and ten years afterward he is the owner of the best establishment for printing books in that city. A young man six years out of college is superintendent of one of the largest woolen mills in the United States. Another a little older is the manager of one of the most important steel works in the country. These are but striking examples of a large class of facts.

Successful business men themselves give no doubtful answer to the questions we are considering. Successful business men, with the rarest exceptions, wish their sons to be educated to the highest point the sons can reach. No matter whether the father be himself an educated man or not, when his success in business has given him the means of educating his children he is sure to desire that they receive a liberal education whether they are going into business or not.

Finally, liberal education is an end in itself apart from all its utilities and applications. When we teach a child to read, our primary aim is not to decipher a way-bill or a receipt, but to kindle its imagination, enlarge its vision, and open for it the avenues of

knowledge. The same is true of a liberal education in its utmost reach. Its chief objects for the individual are development, inspiration, and exaltation; the practical advantages which flow from it are incidental, not paramount.

For the community the institutions of higher learning do a like service. They bring each successive generation of youth up to levels of knowledge and righteousness which the preceding generation reached in their maturity. Public comfort, ease and wealth are doubly promoted by them; but their true and sufficient ends are knowledge and righteousness.

SPEECH BY HORACE GREELEY AT THE FRANKLIN BANQUET,
NEW YORK, 1870

Mr. Chairman and gentlemen, if I were required to say for which of Franklin's achievements he deserved most and best of mankind, I should award the palm to his autobiography—so frank, so sunny, so irradiated by a brave, blithe, hearty humanity. For if our fathers had not—largely by the aid of his counsel, his labors, his sacrifices—achieved their independence at the first effort, they would have tried it again and again until they did achieve it; if he had not made his immortal discovery of the identity of electricity with lightning, that truth would nevertheless have been at length demonstrated; but if he had not so modestly and sweetly told us how to wrestle with poverty and compel opportunity, I do not know who beside would or could have done it so well. There is not to-day, there will not be in this nor in the next century, a friendless, humble orphan, working hard for naked daily bread, and glad to improve his leisure hours in the corner of a garret, whom that biography will not cheer and strengthen to fight the battle of life buoyantly and manfully. I wish some human tract society would present a copy to every poor lad in the United States.

But I must not detain you. Let me sum up the character of Franklin in the fewest words that will serve me. I love and revere him as a journeyman printer who was frugal and didn't drink; a *parvenu* who rose from want to competence, from obscurity to

fame, without losing his head; a statesman who did not crucify mankind with longwinded documents or speeches; a diplomatist who did not intrigue; a philosopher who never loved, and an office-holder who did not steal. So regarding him, I respond to your sentiment with "Honor to the memory of Franklin."

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ADDRESS BY HENRY VAN DYKE
COMMERCE*

There is a nobility of trade which has its traditions of glory, its laws of honor, its history of usefulness, and its purpose of beneficence to all mankind. There is an order of the Golden Fleece to which the world owes its greatest discoveries and its largest advances in civilization. It was founded in the palmy days of Greece, but it has survived to the present day, and we need not look far to find its knights of labor, of adventure, of honor, and of generous succor to the oppressed.

Who sneers at commerce? Is it the lover of liberty? Let him remember that the greatest battles for freedom have been fought by mercantile nations. It was commercial Holland that defied the tyranny of Spain; it was the merchantmen of England that shattered the Armada on the stormy waters of the channel; it was a band of trading colonies that set up the standard of liberty in the new world; and but for the freely offered wealth—and the nobly sacrificed lives—of our mercantile classes, I leave it to you to say whether our new Republic would not now be dismembered and dishonored.

Who sneers at commerce? Is it the devotee of learning? Let him remember that it was the traders of Phoenicia who gave letters to Greece; it was the maritime states of Greece who adorned the world with poetry, and philosophy, and art; it was the age of England's commercial supremacy which brought the highest

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glory to her universities. It is in great part the liberality of merchants which has established on our shores those great institutions of learning—Harvard, Yale, Princeton, Columbia, Cornell. Let him remember the little commercial city of Leyden, and her imperishable example. For when her heroic siege was ended—when she had won her unparalleled victories against armies, ships, cannon, pestilence, flood, and famine—when the Prince of Orange in his unbounded gratitude came and asked her to choose her reward—that little city of Dutch merchants chose not gold, nor freedom from taxes, but a university, and the reward of her defense became the light of Europe. Who sneers at commerce? Is it the friend of peace? Let him remember that commerce has created and established the system of international law; that there is no spot of land to-day upon which the rights of property and person are more secure than upon the high seas. Let him remember that “every ship that sails the ocean is a pledge of peace to the extent of its value; every white sail a more appropriate symbol of peace than the olive branch itself.”

Who sneers at commerce? Is it the preacher of Christianity? Let him remember that it was the trade of Thessalonica which caused the gospel to sound forth from that city into all the world; it was the enterprise of commerce which opened the closed gates of China, and Japan, and Corea, to the missionary, and made possible those triumphant advances of Christianity of which we are beginning to hear the first footfalls, and for whose completion we must look to the consecrated wealth of mercantile communities. Let the church understand her opportunity and her task. Convert commerce and you have found “The Knight-Errant of the Cross.” Convince those who reap the honorable gains of trade that their wealth has its sacred obligation as well as its great privileges, that the richest man is not he who has the most money, but he who makes the best use of what he has, that great possessions are a royal trust from God to be employed for the benefit of mankind, and then the noble order of true commerce will become the transforming and uplifting power of our modern civilization.

PART OF ADDRESS BEFORE COLLEGE WOMEN'S RALLY IN INTEREST
OF GOUCHER COLLEGE*

BY M. CAREY THOMAS, PRESIDENT OF BRYN MAWR COLLEGE

Madam Chairman of the Women's Campaign Committee, College Women of the Goucher Faculty, Goucher College Students, Fellow College Women of Baltimore, and Friends who have met with us:

We have come together to-night to devise ways and means of saving Goucher College. Since 1888 Goucher College has been doing its work in our midst. Goucher has practically never had any endowment. It is only by tremendous sacrifices of personal effort and private means that Goucher has been enabled to give to the girls of Baltimore, Maryland, and other states an excellent college education. For the past twenty-four years we have seen the College literally making bricks without straw before our eyes. Without visible resources or endowment stately building has been added to stately building, well-equipped laboratory to well-equipped laboratory. Under the shadow of our great Johns Hopkins University, inspired by its traditions and helped by its teaching, Goucher has maintained a faculty of men and women scholars of peculiar fitness. Despite its failing fortunes they have stood by the college, accepting small salaries in return for academic freedom and congenial work. Quietly and without advertisement Goucher College has been doing its good work. . . .

The time has surely now come for Baltimore and Maryland to take over Goucher College as a gift of inestimable value, to support it generously, and makes it truly their own. All the great and prosperous states of the United States maintain colleges for women within their territory. And those that have no women's colleges are now making great sacrifices to found them. Only by a college education can the women of a modern state be fitted to bear and rear sons and daughters who will make it enlightened and prosperous. Only so can the women teachers of a state be fitted to teach

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its children as they should be taught. Only so can the women of a state themselves be fitted to meet their heavy civic responsibilities.

All Maryland's great northern, middle, and western neighbors (except Delaware, which has only one hundred and fifty-seven men studying in its one college, and New Jersey) are educating their women in their own colleges. . . .

In many far western and Pacific coast states there is not a single college in the state that is not open to women. Its college-bred young men and women are rapidly bringing prosperity and commercial success to the west. A friend of mine, a wise and much traveled woman, told me a few years ago that she had had occasion to go through the state of Kansas twice at an interval of thirty years, staying in the families of Kansas farmers on each visit. The first time she found discouragement, worn-out wives, tired and silent husbands, and ill cared for children. The second time, after thirty years' interval, the farmers' homes were transformed. Books and magazines were everywhere. Both farmers and farmers' wives had been graduated from the state university. They were intellectually alert and materially successful; the children were receiving the best possible schooling and boys and girls alike were headed straight for the state university. Everywhere she found hope and confidence, intellectual interest and curiosity, happiness and prosperity.

How is it possible at a time like this when we are really beginning to understand what the college education of women means to a community that our own state of Maryland should stand by and see Goucher College closed for lack of \$230,000? How is it possible that the city of Baltimore can seriously consider losing Goucher College? At the present time the only five cities in the United States which have the distinction of possessing two or more colleges belonging to Class I are Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Chicago and Baltimore. It is almost impossible to estimate how much this means to a great city in prestige, commercial prosperity, and true progress. Within the past few years the great English commercial cities of Liverpool, Manchester, and Birmingham have poured out

money like water to support their recently founded great city universities which are giving an excellent college education to their sons and daughters. No great city can afford nowadays not to provide liberally for the college education of its girls. . . .

Women's colleges are in a very different position from men's colleges. Almost all large fortunes are in the hands of men, and very few men realize as yet the necessity of giving girls a thorough college education. Wealthy men are continually giving large sums to men's colleges. Wealthy women give to men's education in memory of their fathers, husbands or sons more frequently and in larger amounts than wealthy men give to women's education. Men's colleges also receive large gifts from their alumni. Unlike men's colleges, it is impossible for women's colleges to appeal for funds to their wealthy graduates. Women, especially young women, have not the disposal of much money. They are not engaged in business. Each dollar raised by a college for women represents many times the effort of a dollar raised by a college for men. Women's colleges are one and all inadequately endowed. And yet women's colleges must be adequately endowed because wherever the choice is given, as in the east of the United States, parents and girls themselves seem to prefer separate colleges for women to co-educational colleges. Unless women's colleges are as liberally endowed as men's colleges women studying in them will receive an inferior education. Our hope for the future lies in great part in the girls now in college. They will be the leaders of thought and of action among women. We cannot possibly give them an education too broad or too deep.

After all what do college women mean to a community? What do Goucher graduates mean to Baltimore? If we study the occupations of the graduates of Goucher College we find that about thirty-five and one-half per cent are married; about twenty-seven and one-half per cent are teaching; about five per cent are doing social and religious work as Young Woman's Christian Association secretaries, missionaries, social workers, etc.; about two and one-third per cent are engaged in business; and about twenty-eight per cent are unmarried and engaged in no wage-earning occupation.

Our knowledge of similar statistics makes us reasonably sure that about fifty per cent of these Goucher graduates, and also of their sisters who have not been to college, will in time marry. Marriage seems to depend not on college education but on social surroundings. Careful studies of thousands of college women and their sisters, or women relatives nearest in age, show that marriage depends on the social group and is not affected by whether men or women have been to college. College women marry a year or two later than their non-college-bred sisters, but they seem to marry better educated men, that is, more men who have been to college, which we should expect, and also men who are making larger incomes than the men whom their non-college-bred sisters marry, perhaps because they are less dependent on marriage for support and can choose more deliberately. Also our statistics show that college women average a fraction more children per marriage, and that fewer of their children die in infancy, also that there are fewer breakdowns after marriage among college women than among their non-college-bred sisters. A new statistical study based on ten thousand college women is now set up in type and will be published in a few months. There is every reason to believe that college mothers, like college fathers, make the best parents in the world. Also college women are in a position to select the best fathers for their children because they can support themselves without marrying the wrong man. If we believe, as we all must, in eugenics (proper heredity), and euthenics (proper environment), how can we not believe that college-bred mothers are of inestimable value in a community? Think also of the other multifold social and civic activities that these college mothers will engage in. They will have leisure, opportunity, and training. College men have training, but it is very seldom that they have the necessary leisure. The late Mrs. Sarah Platt Decker, who was president of the Federation of Women's Clubs for so long, was not herself a college woman, but she used often to say in public that wherever she went throughout the length and breadth of the United States the young college women were what she called "West Pointers," and were leading other women in the great battle of civilization. Reformers

tell me that however remote may be the town they visit, however desperate the cause they champion, whether it be child labor, factory legislation, or consumers' league agitation, good roads, pure food, or white slavery, there is always some college woman there ready to come to the rescue of good citizenship and turn defeat into victory. Wherever I go in this country or abroad men and women introduce themselves to me to tell me of the good works of some Bryn Mawr graduate who has married and is living perhaps in some frontier town. All presidents of women's colleges have a like experience.

When we speak in this way of college women we do not mean that women who have not been to college are not in many cases as efficient and generally serviceable. They are. But what we do mean is that, given the same brain power, the same energy, the same love for human service, the same gracious, womanly character, a college education raises all the wonderful personality of such a woman, as of such a man, to the *n*th power, and moreover often makes of a very ordinary sort of person a well-trained and efficient instrument and also a very happy human being. No truly loving parents should be satisfied without sending their girls to college, whatever they may do with their boys. It is the best imaginable kind of insurance for a woman against unhappiness and ill fortune.

The fifty per cent of Goucher graduates who, in all probability, will not marry will be in the main self-supporting citizens of Maryland. Over one-half of them will become enthusiastic, effective teachers of the children of Baltimore, Maryland, and neighboring states; others will carry on the social and reform work of the city of Baltimore. The annual incomes of these college women will average from \$1,000 to \$1,500 a year for at least forty years. Each wage-earning college woman will add from \$40,000 to \$60,000 in cash to the yield of the state in which she lives. Our statistics show that college women earn at least as much as this and also that they are longer lived than other women, and thus continue their work over a larger period of time. The commercial value of the college women in any state can be roughly approximated, but their

spiritual and mental value to our city and our state is beyond our calculation.

We may perhaps think that our Baltimore girls can get a college education by going to college outside of the state—say two hours by rail to Bryn Mawr, or four hours by rail to New York, but this is not the case. A study was made in 1912 of the incomes of the families of the boys and girls studying in the college department of the great municipal university of the city of Cincinnati. It was found that thirty-five per cent came from homes where the family income was less than \$1,500 a year and forty per cent from homes where the total family income was from \$1,500 to \$2,500. Such boys and girls cannot possibly leave home to go to college. Moreover, every college creates its own students and becomes a center of intellectual light in its own community. Bryn Mawr College is filling Philadelphia with college graduates who would never have gone to college had the college not been at their very doors. The public schools of Philadelphia now prepare girls for Bryn Mawr College and the Philadelphia girls' high school has become one of the best college preparatory schools in the United States. Bryn Mawr's graduates are teaching in most of the public schools of the state. When Bryn Mawr opened in 1885 there was not a high school in the state which taught Latin, French or German. There was not a private school that could prepare girls for college. This is equally true of Goucher College. When Goucher opened in 1888 the Bryn Mawr School of Baltimore, founded in 1885, was the only school in Maryland that could prepare for college. Now ambitious girls in every part of Maryland, and, above all, in Baltimore, look to Goucher College as the goal of their desire. Thirty-three graduates of the Baltimore high schools entered its freshman class this autumn. Let us stop to think what it means to a city to have its girls inspired to train themselves for life in such a college. Think what it means for the next generation to be born of college educated mothers. . . .

We who gather here to-night, we college women of Baltimore, know from our own experience what the closing of Goucher College will mean to the city of Baltimore, and to the girls of Baltimore.

It will mean to the girls of Baltimore the shutting of an open door of splendid opportunity of special training for wifehood, motherhood, social service, and happy self-support. It will mean to the city of Baltimore and the state of Maryland a degradation of its school system because of lack of college-trained teachers, a lessening of its intelligent birth rate, a marked diminution of its activities for social betterment, a lowering of its commercial and moral supremacy. It will mean the passing from our midst of Goucher College and the shining vision of women's college education which Dr. Goucher has called into being for us with the flame of a great desire and a still greater achievement.

We college women cannot let this terrible misfortune befall our beloved Baltimore. Let us pledge ourselves to-night to use all our powers of persuasion and reasoning in presenting the case of Goucher College to everyone who has the power to avert this great catastrophe. The great sum of \$770,000 has already been conditionally promised. This three-quarters of a million will all collapse and fall to pieces like a dome of shivered glass if the remaining \$230,000 cannot be obtained. What will each one in this audience do to save Goucher College?

CLOSING SPEECH OF PROGRESSIVE NATIONAL CAMPAIGN, 1912,
DELIVERED BEFORE 16,000 PEOPLE IN MADISON SQUARE
GARDEN, NEW YORK, BY THEODORE ROOSEVELT.*

Friends, perhaps once in a generation, perhaps not so often, there comes a chance for the people of a country to play their part wisely and fearlessly in some great battle of the age-long warfare for human rights. To our fathers the chance came in the mighty days of Abraham Lincoln, of the man who thought and toiled and suffered for the people with a sad, patient and kindly endeavor. To our forefathers the chance came in the troubled years that stretched from the time when the first Continental Congress gathered to the time when Washington was inaugurated as first President of the Republic.

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To us in our turn the chance has now come to stand for liberty and righteousness as in their day these dead men stood for liberty and righteousness. Our task is not as great as theirs. Yet it is well-nigh as important. Our task is to profit by the lessons of the past and to check in time the evils that grow around us, lest our failure to do so may cause dreadful disaster to the people. We must not sit supine and helpless.

We must not permit the brutal selfishness of arrogance and the brutal selfishness of envy each to run unchecked its evil course. If we do so, then some day smoldering hatred will suddenly kindle into a consuming flame, and either we or our children will be called on to face a crisis as grim as any which this Republic has ever seen.

It is our business to show that nine-tenths of wisdom consists in being wise in time. Woe to our Nation if we let matters drift, if in our industrial and political life we let an unchecked and utterly selfish individualistic materialism riot to its appointed end! That end would be widespread disaster, for it would mean that our people would be sundered by those dreadful lines of division which are drawn when the selfish greed of the haves is set over against the selfish greed of the havenots. There is but one way to prevent such a division, and that is to forestall it by the kind of movement in which we are now engaged.

Our movement is one of resolute insistence upon the rights and full acknowledgment of the duties of every man and every woman within this great land of ours. We war against the forces of evil, and the weapons we use are the weapons of right. We do not set greed against greed or hatred against hatred. Our creed is one that bids us be just to all, to feel sympathy for all, and to strive for an understanding of the needs of all.

Our purpose is to smite down wrong. But toward those who have done the wrong we feel only the kindest charity that is compatible with causing the wrong to cease. We preach hatred to no man, and the spirit in which we work is as far removed from vindictiveness as from weakness. We are resolute to do away with the evil, and we intend to proceed with such wise and cautious sanity

as will cause the very minimum of disturbance that is compatible with achieving our purpose.

Do not forget, friends, that we are not proposing to substitute law for character. We are merely proposing to buttress character by law. We fully recognize that, as has been true in the past, so it is true now, and ever will be true, the prime factor in each man's or woman's success must normally be that man's or woman's own character—character, the sum of many qualities, but above all of the qualities of honesty, of courage and of common sense.

Nothing will avail a nation if there is not the right type of character among the average men and women, the plain people, the hard-working, decent-living, right-thinking people, who make up the great bulk of our citizenship. I know my countrymen; I know that they are of this type. But it is in civil life, as it is in war. In war it is the man behind the gun that counts most, and yet he cannot do his work unless he has the right kind of gun. In civil life, in the everyday life of our Nation, it is individual character which counts most; and yet the individual character cannot avail unless in addition thereto there lie ready to hand the social weapons which can be forged only by law and by public opinion operating through and operated upon by law.

Again, friends, do not forget that we are proposing no new principles. The doctrines we preach reach back to the Golden Rule and the Sermon on the Mount. They reach back to the Commandments delivered at Sinai. All that we are doing is to apply those doctrines in the shape necessary to make them available for meeting the living issues of our own day. We decline to be bound by the empty little cut-and-dried formulas of bygone philosophies, useful once, perhaps, but useless now.

Our purpose is to shackle greedy cunning as we shackle brutal force, and we are not to be diverted from this purpose by the appeal to the dead dogmas of a vanished past. We propose to lift the burdens from the lowly and the weary, from the poor and the oppressed. We propose to stand for the sacred rights of childhood and womanhood. Nay, more, we propose to see that manhood

is not crushed out of the men who toil, by excessive hours of labor, by underpayment, by injustice and oppression.

When this purpose can only be secured by the collective action of our people through their governmental agencies, we propose so to secure it. We brush aside the arguments of those who seek to bar action by the repetition of some formula about "States' rights" or about "the history of liberty" being "the history of the limitation of governmental power," or about the duty of the courts finally to determine the meaning of the Constitution. We are for human rights and we intend to work for them in efficient fashion.

Where they can be best obtained by the application of the doctrines of States' rights, then we are for States' rights. Where, in order to obtain them, it is necessary to invoke the power of the Nation, then we shall invoke to its uttermost limits that mighty power. We are for liberty. But we are for the liberty of the oppressed, and not for the liberty of the oppressor to oppress the weak and to bind burdens on the shoulders of the heavy laden. It is idle to ask us not to exercise the power of the Government when only by the power of the Government can we curb the greed that sits in high places, when only by the exercise of the Government can we exalt the lowly and give heart to the humble and the down-trodden.

We care for facts and not for formulas. We care for deeds and not for words. We recognize no sacred right of oppression. We recognize no divine right to work injustice. We stand for the Constitution. We recognize that one of its most useful functions is the protection of property. But we will not consent to make of the Constitution a fetish for the protection of fossilized wrong. We call the attention of those who thus interpret it to the fact that, in that great instrument of justice, life and liberty are put on a full level with property, indeed, are enumerated ahead of it in the order of their importance.

We stand for an upright judiciary. But where the Judges claim the right to make our laws by finally interpreting them, by finally deciding whether or not we have the power to make them, then we claim the right ourselves to exercise that power. We forbid any

men, no matter what their official position may be, to usurp the right which is ours, the right which is the people's. We recognize in neither court nor Congress, nor President, any divine right to override the will of the people expressed with due deliberation in orderly fashion and through the forms of law. We Progressives hold that the words of the Declaration of Independence, as given effect to by Washington and as construed and applied by Abraham Lincoln, are to be accepted as real, and not as empty phrases.

We believe that in very truth this is a government by the people themselves, that the Constitution is theirs, that the courts are theirs, that all the governmental agents and agencies are theirs. We believe that all true leaders of the people must fearlessly stand for righteousness and honesty, must fearlessly tell the people what justice and honor demand. But we no less strongly insist that it is for the people themselves finally to decide all questions of public policy and to have their decision made effective. In the platform formulated by the Progressive party we have set forth clearly and specifically our faith on every vital point at issue before this people.

We have declared our position on the trusts and on the tariff, on the machinery for securing genuine popular government, on the method of meeting the needs of the farmer, of the business man and of the man who toils with his hands, in the mine or on the railroad, in the factory or in the shop. There is not a promise we have made which cannot be kept. There is not a promise we have made that will not be kept. Our platform is a covenant with the people of the United States, and if we are given the power we will live up to that covenant in letter and in spirit.

We know that there are in life injustices which we are powerless to remedy. But we know also that there is much injustice which can be remedied, and this injustice we intend to remedy. We know that the long path leading upward toward the light cannot be traversed at once, or in a day, or in a year. But there are certain steps that can be taken at once. These we intend to take. Then, having taken these first steps, we shall see more clearly how to walk still further with a bolder stride.

We do not intend to attempt the impossible. But there is much,

very much, that is possible in the way of righting wrong and remedying injustice, and all that is possible we intend to do. We intend to strike down privilege, to equalize opportunity, to wrest justice from the hands that do injustice, to hearten and strengthen men and women for the hard battle of life. We stand shoulder to shoulder in a spirit of real brotherhood. We recognize no differences of class, creed or birthplace. We recognize no sectionalism.

Our appeal is made to the Easterner no less than to the Westerner. Our appeal is made to the Southerner no less than to the Northerner. We appeal to the men who wore the gray just as we appeal to the men who wore the blue. We appeal to the sons of the men who followed Lee no less than to the sons of the men who followed Grant; for the memory of the great deeds of both is now part of the common heritage of honor which belongs to all our people wherever they dwell.

We firmly believe that the American people feel hostility to no man who has honestly won success. We firmly believe that the American people ask only justice, justice each for himself and justice each for all others. They are against wickedness in rich man and poor man alike. They are against lawless and murderous violence exactly as they are against the sordid materialism which seeks wealth by trickery and cheating, whether on a large or a small scale.

They wish to deal honestly and in good faith with all men. They recognize that the prime national need is for honesty, honesty in public life and in private life, honesty in business and in politics, honesty in the broadest and deepest significance of the word. We Progressives are trying to represent what we know to be the highest ideals and the deepest and most intimate convictions of the plain men and women, of the good men and women, who work for the home and within the home.

Our people work hard and faithfully. They do not wish to shirk their work. They must feel pride in the work for the work's sake. But there must be bread for the work. There must be a time for play when the men and women are young. When they grow old there must be the certainty of rest under conditions free from the

haunting terror of utter poverty. We believe that no life is worth anything unless it is a life of labor and effort and endeavor. We believe in the joy that comes with work, for he who labors best is really happiest.

We must shape conditions so that no one can own the spirit of the man who loves his task and gives the best there is in him to that task, and it matters not whether this man reaps and sows and wrests his livelihood from the rugged reluctance of the soil or whether with hand or brain he plays his part in the tremendous industrial activities of our great cities.

We are striving to meet the needs of all these men, and to meet them in such fashion that all alike shall feel bound together in the bond of a common brotherhood, where each works hard for himself and for those dearest to him, and yet feels that he must also think of his brother's rights because he is in very truth that brother's keeper. Seven months ago in this city, almost at the beginning of the present campaign, I spoke as follows:

"The leader for the time being, whoever he may be, is but an instrument, to be used until broken and then to be cast aside; and if he is worth his salt he will care no more when he is broken than a soldier cares when he is sent where his life is forfeit in order that the victory may be won. In the long fight for righteousness the watchword for all of us is spend and be spent. It is of little matter whether any one man fails or succeeds; but the cause shall not fail, for it is the cause of mankind. We, here in America, hold in our hands the hope of the world, the fate of the coming years, and shame and disgrace will be ours if in our eyes the light of high resolve is dimmed, if we trail in the dust the golden hopes of men."

Friends, what I said then I say now. Surely there never was a greater opportunity than ours. Surely there never was a fight better worth making than this. I believe we shall win, but win or lose I am glad beyond measure that I am one of the many who in this fight have stood ready to spend and be spent, pledged to fight while life lasts the great fight for righteousness and for brotherhood and for the welfare of mankind.

INAUGURATION ADDRESS OF PRESIDENT WOODROW WILSON,*
MARCH 4, 1913

There has been a change of Government. It began two years ago, when the House of Representatives became Democratic by a decisive majority. It has now been completed. The Senate about to assemble will also be Democratic. The offices of President and Vice-President have been put into the hands of Democrats. What does the change mean? That is the question that is uppermost in our minds to-day. That is the question I am going to try to answer, in order, if I may, to interpret the occasion.

It means much more than the mere success of a party. The success of a party means little except when the Nation is using that party for a large and definite purpose. No one can mistake the purpose for which the Nation now seeks to use the Democratic Party. It seeks to use it to interpret a change in its own plans and point of view. Some old things with which we had grown familiar, and which had begun to creep into the very habit of our thought and of our lives, have altered their aspect as we have latterly looked critically upon them, with fresh, awakened eyes; have dropped their disguises and shown themselves alien and sinister. Some new things, as we look frankly upon them, willing to comprehend their real character, have come to assume the aspect of things long believed in and familiar, stuff of our own convictions. We have been refreshed by a new insight into our own life.

We see in many things that life is very great. It is incomparably great in its material aspects, in its body of wealth, in the diversity and sweep of its energy, in the industries which have been conceived and built up by the genius of individual men and the limitless enterprise of groups of men. It is great, also, very great, in its moral force. Nowhere else in the world have noble men and women exhibited in more striking forms the beauty and the energy of sympathy and helpfulness and counsel in their efforts to rectify wrong, alleviate suffering, and set the weak in the way of strength and hope. We have built up, moreover, a great system

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of government, which has stood through a long age as in many respects a model for those who seek to set liberty upon foundations that will endure against fortuitous change, against storm and accident. Our life contains every great thing, and contains it in rich abundance.

But the evil has come with the good, and much fine gold has been corroded. With riches has come inexcusable waste. We have squandered a great part of what we might have used, and have not stopped to conserve the exceeding bounty of nature, without which our genius for enterprise would have been worthless and impotent, scorning to be careful, shamefully prodigal as well as admirably efficient. We have been proud of our industrial achievements, but we have not hitherto stopped thoughtfully enough to count the human cost, the cost of lives snuffed out, of energies overtaxed and broken, the fearful physical and spiritual cost to the men and women and children upon whom the dead weight and burden of it all has fallen pitilessly the years through. The groans and agony of it all had not yet reached our ears, the solemn, moving undertone of our life, coming up out of the mines and factories and out of every home where the struggle had its intimate and familiar seat. With the great Government went many deep secret things which we too long delayed to look into and scrutinize with candid, fearless eyes. The great Government we loved has too often been made use of for private and selfish purposes, and those who used it had forgotten the people.

At last a vision has been vouchsafed us of our life as a whole. We see the bad with the good, the debased and decadent with the sound and vital. With this vision we approach new affairs. Our duty is to cleanse, to reconsider, to restore, to correct the evil without impairing the good, to purify and humanize every process of our common life without weakening or sentimentalizing it. There has been something crude and heartless and unfeeling in our haste to succeed and be great. Our thought has been "Let every man look out for himself, let every generation look out of itself," while we reared giant machinery which made it impossible that any but those who stood at the levers of control should have a chance to

look out for themselves. We had not forgotten our morals. We remembered well enough that we had set up a policy which was meant to serve the humblest as well as the most powerful, with an eye single to the standards of justice and fair play, and remembered it with pride. But we were very heedless and in a hurry to be great.

We have come now to the sober second thought. The scales of heedlessness have fallen from our eyes. We have made up our minds to square every process of our National life again with the standards we so proudly set up at the beginning and have always carried at our hearts. Our work is a work of restoration.

We have itemized with some degree of particularity the things that ought to be altered, and here are some of the chief items: A tariff which cuts us off from our proper part in the commerce of the world, violates the just principles of taxation, and makes the Government a facile instrument in the hands of private interests; a banking and currency system based upon the necessity of the Government to sell its bonds fifty years ago and perfectly adapted to concentrating cash and restricting credits; an industrial system which, take it on all its sides, financial as well as administrative, holds capital in leading strings, restricts the liberties and limits the opportunities of labor, and exploits without renewing or conserving the natural resources of the country; a body of agricultural activities never yet given the efficiency of great business undertakings or served as it should be through the instrumentality of science taken directly to the farm, or afforded the facilities of credit best suited to its practical needs; water courses undeveloped, waste places unreclaimed, forests untended, fast disappearing without plan or prospect of renewal, unregarded waste heaps at every mine. We have studied as perhaps no other nation has the most effective means of production, but we have not studied cost or economy as we should either as organizers of industry, as statesmen, or as individuals.

Nor have we studied and perfected the means by which government may be put at the service of humanity, in safeguarding the health of the Nation, the health of its men and its women and its children, as well as their rights in the struggle for existence. This is

no sentimental duty. The firm basis of government is justice, not pity. These are matters of justice. There can be no equality of opportunity, the first essential of justice in the body politic, if men and women and children be not shielded in their lives, their very vitality, from the consequences of great industrial and social processes which they cannot alter, control, or singly cope with. Society must see to it that it does not itself crush or weaken or damage its own constituent parts. The first duty of law is to keep sound the society it serves. Sanitary laws, pure food laws, and laws determining conditions of labor which individuals are powerless to determine for themselves are intimate parts of the very business of justice and legal efficiency.

These are some of the things we ought to do, and not leave the others undone, the old-fashioned, never-to-be-neglected, fundamental safeguarding of property and of individual right. This is the high enterprise of the new day: to lift everything that concerns our life as a Nation to the light that shines from the hearthfire of every man's conscience and vision of the right. It is inconceivable that we should do this as partisans; it is inconceivable we should do it in ignorance of the facts as they are or in blind haste. We shall restore, not destroy. We shall deal with our economic system as it is and as it may be modified, not as it might be if we had a clean sheet of paper to write upon; and step by step we shall make it what it should be, in the spirit of those who question their own wisdom and seek counsel and knowledge, not shallow self-satisfaction or the excitement of excursions whither they cannot tell. Justice, and only justice, shall always be our motto.

And yet it will be no cool process of mere science. The Nation has been deeply stirred, stirred by a solemn passion, stirred by the knowledge of wrong, of ideals lost, of Government too often debauched and made an instrument of evil. The feelings with which we face this new age of right and opportunity sweep across our heart-strings like some air out of God's own presence, where justice and mercy are reconciled and the judge and the brother are one. We know our task to be no mere task of politics, but a task which shall search us through and through, whether we be able to under-

stand our time and the need of our people, whether we be indeed their spokesmen and interpreters, whether we have the pure heart to comprehend and the rectified will to choose our high course of action.

This is not a day of triumph; it is a day of dedication. Here muster, not the forces of party, but the forces of humanity. Men's hearts wait upon us; men's lives hang in the balance; men's hopes call upon us to say what we will do. Who shall live up to the great trust? Who dares fail to try? I summon all honest men, all patriotic, all forward-looking men, to my side. God helping me, I will not fail them, if they will but counsel and sustain me!

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